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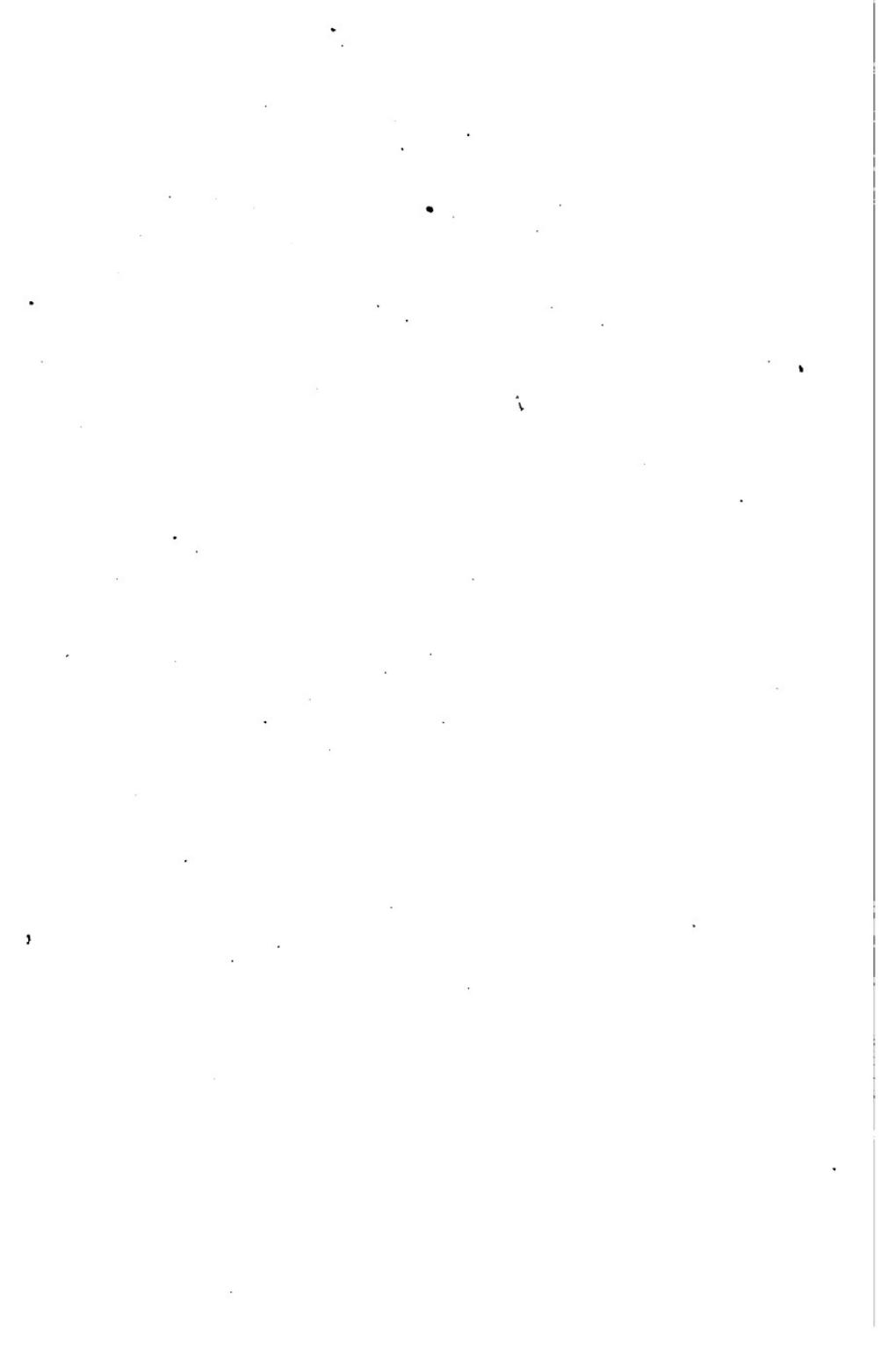
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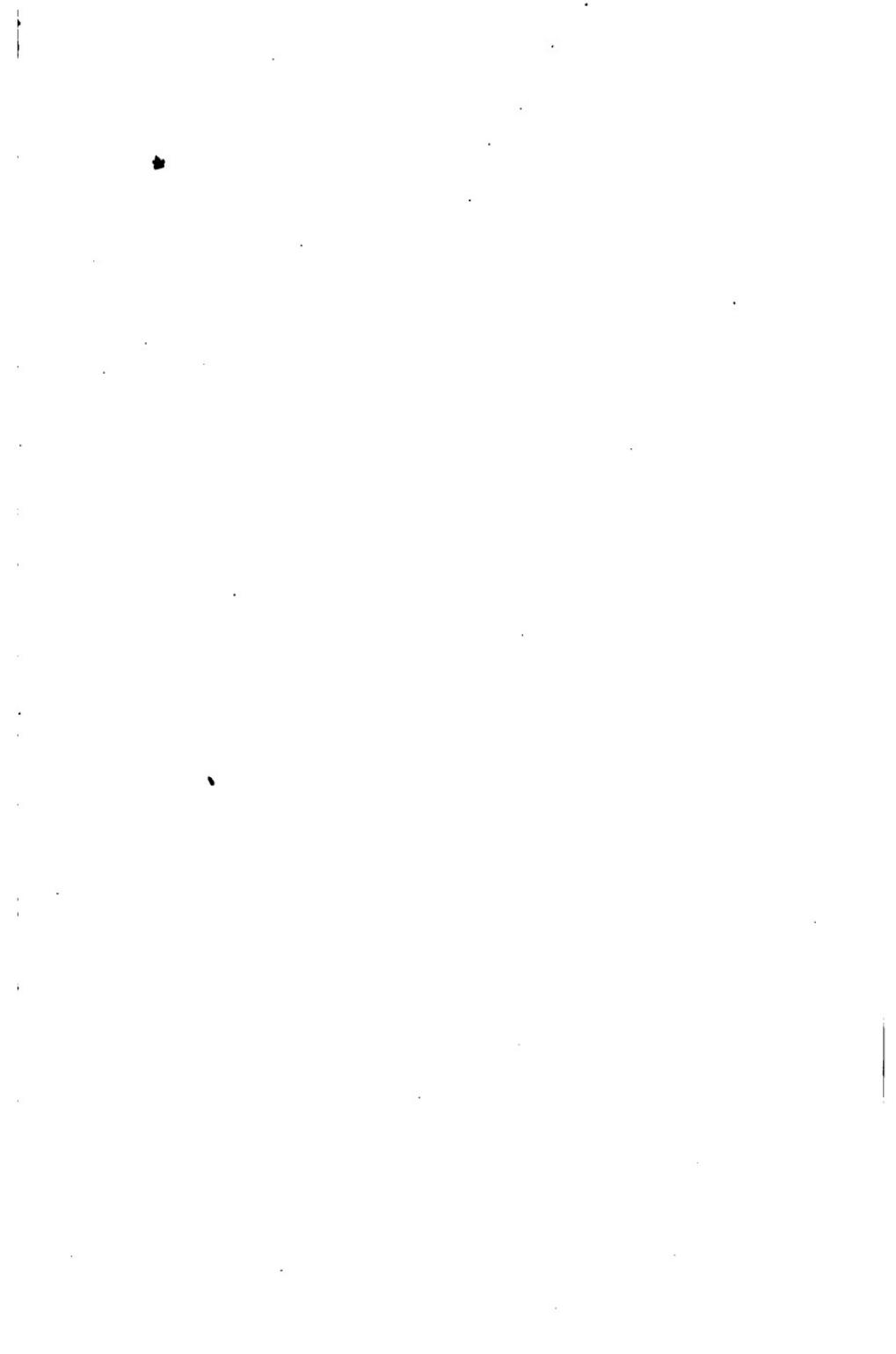


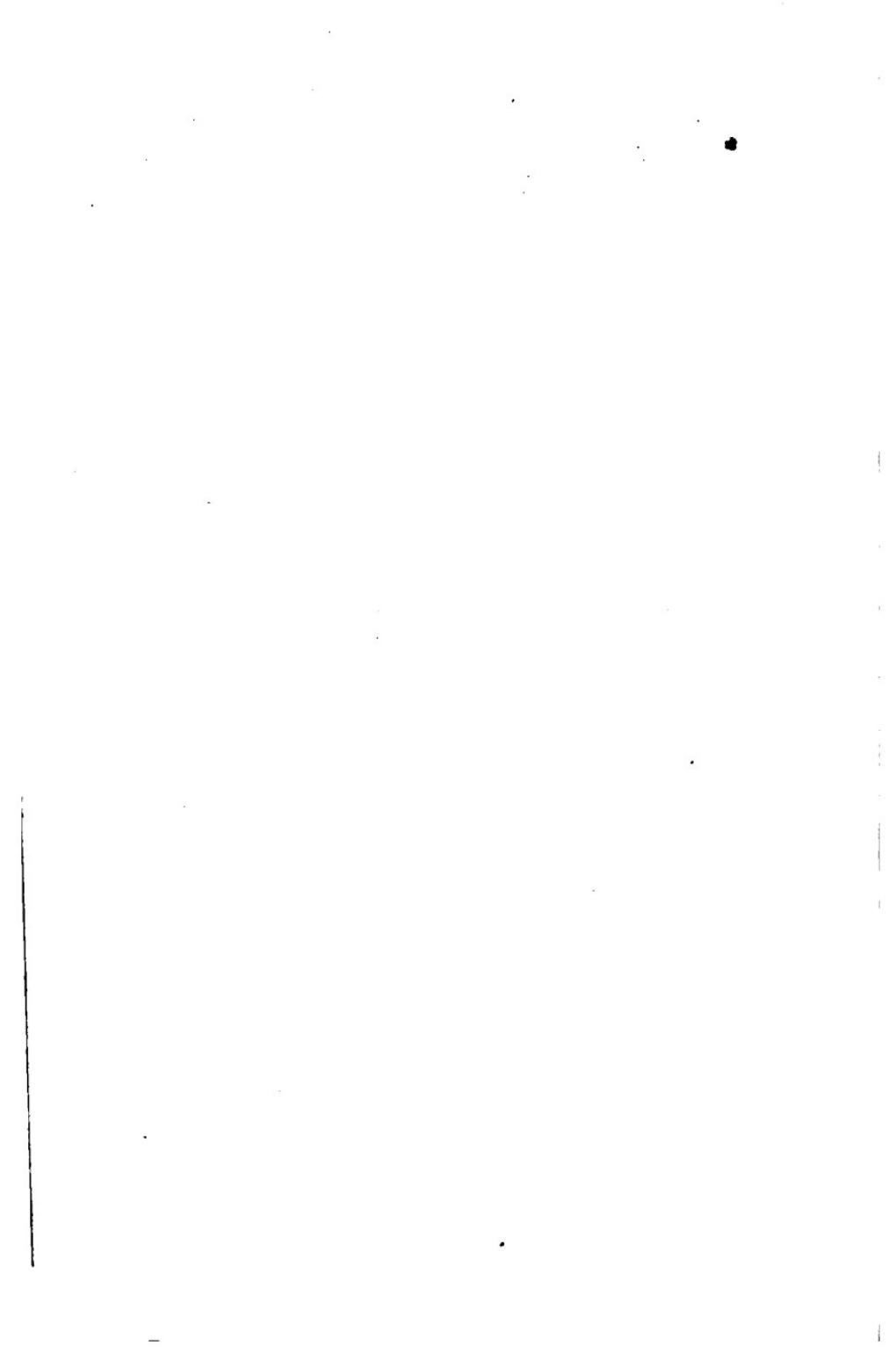
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A

PRACTICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR:

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS

AND

PRIVATE STUDENTS.

BY

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CHICAGO NEW YORK

THE WERNER COMPANY

Aug 14 1928

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PREFACE.

WHEN we keep in view the fact that the office of Grammar is not to make language or the rules which govern the use of it, but rather to record that usage for the benefit of him who speaks the language, can we, in truth, say that English is a "grammarless tongue"? It is true it has not the variety of inflection found in the Latin or the Greek, but it has fixed principles and idioms which neither the advocate of English Grammar nor his most learned and argumentative opponent pretends to ignore or contradict.

Many earnest teachers exclaim against the teaching of technical grammar, forgetful of the fact that it is not the science itself, but the mode of presenting it to the pupil, which is at fault. What the beginner needs is lessons in English to form for him correct habits of speech. These lessons should be given preparatory to any instruction in the science of Grammar, but the science upon which the principles illustrated in the lessons are based is none the less necessary to him who would use the language with precision and elegance.

It is the office of the grammarian to examine into the structure of the language, and formulate the laws which seem to have governed its use by the most reputable writers and speakers. These rules or laws are the standard by which every speaker or writer must judge, and test the correctness of his own speech. In applying the tests to his own language, the student may find it a difficult matter at times to correct bad habits of speech formed early in life, but this is no argument against the science of Grammar.

But English Grammar has other important ends to serve, independent of training one to use the English language correctly. The close, accurate habits of thought engendered by the critical analysis of the English sentence, and the cultivation of keen perception in the correction and criticism of errors in speech, are of incalculable value to the learner as a thinking citizen of the future.

Believing that a love for the literature of our language may be cultivated while the learner pursues the study of Grammar, the Author has made his selections for parsing and analysis from reputable

English writers. It will be noticed also that in almost every instance the name of the author is attached, and while the selections have been made largely to illustrate the language and its idiom, pure, noble, elevating sentiment has not been forgotten in the choice.

Attention is directed to the simplicity of the *written* method of analysis. As a labor-saver, when it is desirable to have pupils write out or diagram the analysis of a sentence, it is believed the plan here set forth has never been equaled for simplicity and system.

Attention is called also to the general make-up or arrangement of the book and the clearness and conciseness with which the various principles are stated.

The system of Analysis, beginning on page 119, is not only simple, but also comprehensive. It is true, many more subdivisions, perplexing in name and metaphysical in character, might be made, but of what use would they be? The Author believes in simplifying the science, not in making it needlessly difficult and intricate for the learner.

The chapter on Punctuation will be found to embrace the leading principles, set forth in such a manner as to be not only interesting but also easily mastered.

Care has been taken to give plenty of exercises, not only in the construction and analysis of sentences, but also for correction; and among those for correction it will be noticed the Author has recorded many from some of the most reputable writers of English. These form one of the strongest arguments in favor of the close and accurate study of the principles of English Grammar. Such sentences must not be quoted as correct because used by noted writers. They tend rather to show that those who have written the purest English have now and then been careless or have ceased to be vigilant over their use of language. Few men—possibly none—have ever written in whose productions some errors may not be found contradicting the rules of Grammar, which in general have been the writer's guide. After a most extensive and elaborate course of reading, De Quincey testifies that he has met with only two or three writers who did not sometimes violate the accidente or the syntax of English Grammar.

The Author hopes this venture may meet not only the needs, but also the approbation, of progressive teachers.

ALBERT N. RAUB,

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Thoughts are expressed by means of words.

Spoken language consists of spoken words, and **written language** of written words.

The **English language** is the language spoken by the people of England. It is spoken also by the people of the United States and wherever else English people are found.

English Grammar treats of the principles of the English language. It teaches us how to use the English language correctly.

Remark.—Grammar does not make language; it is simply a record of the usage of the language as found in the speech and writings of the best authors.

The divisions of Grammar are four: **ORTHOGRAPHY**, **ETYMOLOGY**, **SYNTAX**, and **PROSODY**.

Orthography treats of letters.

Etymology treats of words, their classification, derivation and properties.

Syntax treats of sentences and their structure.

Prosody treats of the laws of verse-making, or versification.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of letters.

Remark.—The word *orthography* is derived from the Greek *orthos*, right, and *graphein*, to write.

Letters are written characters used to represent the elementary sounds of a spoken language.

Elementary Sounds are the simplest sounds of a language.

The elementary sounds of English embrace —

Vocals, which consist of pure tone.

Subvocals, which consist of tone and breath united.

Aspirates, which consist of breath only.

TABLE OF ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

Vocals.

a	as in ate.
ă	" at.
ă	" arm.
ă	" all.
ă	" care.
ă	" ask.
ĕ	" me.
ĕ	" met.
ĕ	" her.

i	as in ice.
î	" it:
ō	" go.
ō	" not.
ō	" do.
ū	" mute.
ū	" cup.
ū	" full.
ou	" our.

oi as in oil.

Subvocals.

b	as in bib.
d	" did.
g	" gag.
j	" jug.
l	" lull.
m	" man.
n	" name.
r (<i>smooth</i>)	as in lard.

r (<i>trilled</i>)	as in roll.
v	as in vine.
w	" well.
y	" yes.
z	" zone.
th	" this.
zh	" ozier.
ng	" sing.

Aspirates.

p as in cap.
t " take.
k " cake.
ch " church.

s as in sun.
sh " shall.
f " five.
th " thin.

h as in hat.

Letters.

The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

Letters are of two classes, *Vowels* and *Consonants*.

The **Vowels** are those letters which represent vocal sounds. They are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

Remark.— *W* and *y* are vowels—

1. When they end words or syllables, as in *show, ahoy*.
2. When not followed by a vowel in the same syllable, as in *growth, sylvan*.
3. When followed in the same syllable by a vowel not sounded, as in *owe, stye*.

In other situations *w* and *y* are consonants.

The **Consonants** are those letters used to represent the *subvocal* and the *aspirate* sounds.

Consonants may be subdivided into *semivowels* and *mutes*.

A **Semivowel** is a consonant whose sound may be prolonged; as, *f, r, l*.

The semivowels are *c* soft, *f, g* soft, *h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, w, y, z*.

L, m, n, r are sometimes called *liquids*, because their sounds flow readily into other sounds, and unite with them.

A Mute is a consonant sound that cannot be prolonged ; as, *p*, *k*, *t*.

The mutes are *b*, *c* hard, *d*, *g* hard, *k*, *p*, *q*, *t*.

Equivalents.

When several letters or combinations of letters represent the same sound, they are called *equivalents* ; as, *ai* in *rail*, *ey* in *they*, *au* in *gauge*.

A letter which represents several different sounds is said to be *variable* ; as, *a* in *late*, *art*, *cat*, *hall*, *fare*, *ask*.

A letter which has no sound when used in a word is said to be silent ; as, *e* in *late*, *l* in *oalm*, *e* in *charge*.

Exercise.

Name the equivalents in each of the following words, and tell to what the letters and the combinations are equivalent :

Goat, sew, beau, vain, buy, ~~Yea~~, flee, grief, die, law, broad, road, beauty, head, again, said, been, seen, build, you, through, wool, roof, foot, toil, joy, her, sir, myrtle, plough, enough, through, gem, cipher, chaise, martial, gracious, intention.

Name the silent letters in the following words :

Fame, staff, lock, heart, ~~w~~ice, tell, thief, shall, balm, hour, thumb, bough, caught, wrought, wreath, kneel, thyme, scythe, captain, starlight, sheriff, subtle, subtile, weighty, aghast, attempt, farewell, alight, benumb, impugn, psalmody, passable, arduous, rhetoric, prejudice, certainly, synagogue.

In which of the following words has *c* the sound of *s*, and in which the sound of *k*?—

Lace, cane, cake, class, vice, cede, crisp, flounce, cite, scull, crutch, city, public, cylinder, ensconce, caprice.

In which of the following words has *g* the soft sound, and in which the hard sound?—

Girl, gape, gauge, gush, large, glass, gentle, gem, gilliflower,

congeal, gelatine, garret, gun, gin, fatigue, gouge, gorgeous, ghost, gyration, vagary, egotism, forego, abridge, resign.

Combinations of Letters.

When two vowels are united in a syllable the combination is called a diphthong; as, *ou* in *though*, *ew* in *few*.

A Proper Diphthong is one in which both vowels are sounded; as, *oi* in *oil*.

An Improper Diphthong is one in which but one of the vowels is sounded; as, *ea* in *heat*.

A Triphthong is the union of three vowels in one syllable; as, *uoy* in *buoy*.

Note.—There are no triphthongs in which the vowels are all sounded. The *u* in *buoy* is equivalent to the consonant *w*.

Exercise.

Name the proper and the improper diphthongs, also the triphthongs in the following words:

Seer, leaf, fail, hour, lief, voice, boy, believe, receive, low, mow, how, hoe, court, house, gauge, lieutenant, people, beauty, viewing, steak, chief, whey, gaol, goal.

Words and Syllables.

A Word is a syllable or a combination of syllables used to express an idea.

A Syllable is a letter or a combination of letters that may be uttered with one impulse of voice.

Note.—A syllable may consist of one letter or more than one. The essential part consists usually of a vowel sound.

A word of one syllable is called a Monosyllable; as, *teach, like*.

A word of two syllables is called a **Dissyllable**; as, *teaching, likely*.

A word of three syllables is called a **Trisyllable**; as, *teachable, likelihood*.

A word of more than three syllables is called a **Poly-syllable**; as, *multiplicity, intrinsically*.

Note. —The word *syllable* is derived from the Greek *syl*, together, and *labein*, to take; and monosyllable, dissyllable, trisyllable, and polysyllable take their names from the Greek *monos*, one; *dis*, two; *tris*, three; and *poly*, many—each combined with the word *syllable*.

Exercise.

Tell which of the following words are monosyllables, which dissyllables, which trisyllables, and which polysyllables:

Accent, mischief, accented, mischievous, scarce, polysyllable, tenement, whirl, somnambulist, sensation, carried, vindicate, syntax, receive, received, partition, overwhelm, overwhelmingly, sarcastic, paper, begin, beginning, heat, heated, like, liked, table-cover, penmanship, hearty, cordial, taxation, taxable, representative, regaled, encountered.

Classes of Words.

Words may be either *Primitive* or *Derivative*.

A **Primitive** word is one not derived from any other in the same language; as, *child, write*.

A **Derivative** word is one derived from a primitive word by the addition of one or more letters; as, *childish, writing, childishness*.

A **Compound** word is one composed of two or more words; as, *inkstand, son-in-law, dancing-master*.

Note 1. —Permanent compounds, or those most frequently used, are generally written without a hyphen; as, *penman, schoolhouse*.

Note 2. —Temporary compounds, or those not frequently used, are generally written with the hyphen; as, *cloud-capped, laughter-loving*.

Derivative words are formed from primitive by adding a syllable at the beginning, called a *Prefix*; as, *fall*, *befall*; or by adding a syllable at the end, called a *Suffix*; as, *fall*, *falling*.

Prefixes and *Suffixes* are called **Affixes**.

Forms of Letters.

1. Letters are of two CLASSES—capital letters and lower case, or small letters.
2. Letters are of different **Styles**: Roman, *Italic*, *Script*, *Old English*.
3. The chief **Types** used for printing letters are of various sizes, as follows:

Great Primer,	Small Pica,	Minion,
English,	Long Primer,	Nonpareil,
Pica,	Bourgeois,	Agate,
	Brevier,	Pearl,
		Diamond.

Capital Letters.

The following are the chief rules for the use of capital letters:

1. The *first word of every sentence* or its equivalent should begin with a capital letter.

Example.—The boy runs. When did you come? All nature is aglow with warmth.

2. The first word of a clause or a sentence given as an example should begin with a capital letter.

Ex.—A sentence is a thought expressed in words; as, Art is long.

3. The first word after an introductory word or clause should begin with a capital letter.

Ex.—*Resolved*, That the assembly convene at 7 o'clock.

Be it enacted by the legislature, etc., That a tax, etc.

4. The first word of each new line in an enumeration of particulars, when arranged in lines, should begin with a capital letter.

Ex.—The expenses of the school have been—

For Furniture	\$2340.50
For Rent and Insurance	675.00
For Apparatus and Library	743.20

5. The first word of every direct quotation or important statement should begin with a capital letter.

Ex. 1.—*Direct*. Coleridge says, “Experience is the best schoolmaster.”

Indirect. Coleridge says that experience is the best schoolmaster.

Ex. 2.—“One truth is clear, Whatever is, is right.”

6. The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital letter.

Ex.—For God hath marked each sorrowing day,
And numbered every secret tear.—*Bryant*.

7. Every proper name should begin with a capital letter.

Ex.—Mary, James, America, Monday, January, New York, William Cullen Bryant.

8. Words naming particular objects or events should begin with capital letters.

Ex.—The Alleghanies, Hudson's Bay, the Cape of Good Hope, the Tower of London, the Ocean House, Niagara Falls, the Park, the City Hall, the Teachers' Institute, the Revolution, Fourth of July.

Remark.—In writing the names of places consisting of two words usage is not uniform. Thus, New-Castle, New Castle, and Newcastle are all authorized. When connected with a

hyphen, or when separated, each part begins with a capital letter. But when the two names have become united and constitute but one word, only one capital should be used.

9. Adjectives derived from proper names should begin with capital letters.

Ex.—French, American, Irish, English, Websterian.

Remark.—When words derived from proper names are used to express a common quality they are no longer written with capitals; as, stentorian, godlike, damask, etc.

10. Titles of honor, office, or respect, usually begin with capitals.

Ex.—President Adams, Queen Victoria, Prof. Johnson, Superintendent Wickersham, Gen. Banks, Sir Walter Scott, Mr. Barnes, Miss Willson, Henry the Eighth.

Remark.—When a title is used with a proper name for the purpose of explanation it does not begin with a capital letter.

Ex.—The prophet Isaiah, the apostle John.

11. All appellations of the Deity should begin with capital letters.

Ex.—God, Almighty, the Supreme, the Divine Architect, the Father, the Son, the Holy Ghost.

Remark.—Usage is by no means uniform in writing the pronouns referring to the Deity, but the best writers of English seem to favor beginning these pronouns with small letters except when equivalent to the name of the Deity, when a capital letter is admissible; as, “To Him who created all things,” etc.

12. The words I and O should always be capitals.

13. In the titles of books or subjects of essays, etc., every noun, adjective, verb, and adverb should begin with a capital letter.

Ex.—"The Fireside Cyclopaedia of Poetry."
"Good Fruits, and How to Grow Them."

Remark.—Pronouns also, when emphatic, as in the preceding examples, are sometimes written with capitals.

14. Common names, when strongly personified, begin with capital letters.

Ex.—"Nothing but Folly goes faithless and fearful;
Courage for ever is happy and wise."—*Tupper*.

"Come, gentle Spring! ethereal Mildness! come!"

General Remark.—The foregoing rules cover all the ordinary cases where words should begin with capitals, but in the case of handbills, advertisements, etc., much is left to the taste of the printer, who often uses capitals profusely to make a better display. Also when books are prepared for the press, subjects of new sections introduced are often begun with capital letters; as, "A noun is a name."

Note.—Italics are indicated in writing by a *single line* drawn under the word, and small capitals by *two lines*.

Examples for Practice.

Make any correction necessary as to the use of capital letters in the following sentences:

1. that was last year. now i've grown wiser.
2. a district school, not far away,
'mid berkshire hills, one winter's day
was humming with its wonted noise
of threescore mingled girls and boys.
3. paul said unto king agrippa, after the most straitest sect of our religion i lived a pharisee.
4. which thing i did also in jerusalem.
5. resolved, that language is of divine origin.
6. the expenses of the city were reported to be—

1. for street repairs \$605.00
2. for public schools 6420.00
3. for support of the poor . . . 927.10

7. president lincoln was elected in 1860.
8. the lecture was delivered by the rev. dr. adams.
9. Cicero says, "he is worthy of honor who wills the good of every man."
10. It is todd who says that The first great object of education is to discipline the mind.
11. In filling your mind with knowledge obey this law,—keep what you give and give what you can.
12. The city of new York was formerly called new amsterdam.
13. West chester and new castle are both flourishing towns.
14. The american revolution began with the battle of bennington, april 19, 1773.
15. The Apostle Paul was formerly called saul of tarsus.
16. Cape Cod bay lies east of massachusetts, but the gulf of mexico is south of the united states.
17. The faculty of Reason is almost Godlike.
18. The members of the teachers' institute were both edified and instructed.
19. The first prayer of the first american congress opened with o lord, our heavenly father, high and mighty king of kings and lord of lords.
20. One of Trowbridge's best books is entitled, Lawrence's adventures among the ice-cutters, glass-makers, coal-miners, iron-men, and ship-builders.
21. The subject of the Essay was, "the wisdom of aiming at perfection."
22. The question for debate read as follows: *resolved*, that morality advances with civilization.
23. He sailed in the good ship "commodore."
22. "Who hath not learned in hours of faith,
The truth to flesh and sense unknown,
that life is ever lord of death,
And love can never lose its own!"
25. An important truth is often expressed in a few words; as, wisdom is priceless.

Spelling.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their correct letters properly arranged.

Note.—While it is true that a large number of English words cannot be spelled by rule, it is also true that there are very many to the spelling of which the rules apply. Pupils should make themselves thoroughly familiar with these rules and test their practical application. The following are the most important

RULES FOR SPELLING.

Final E.

RULE 1.—Words ending in silent *e* generally drop the *e* on receiving an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *move*, *able*, *movable*; *ice*, *y*, *icy*.

Exceptions.—1. Words ending in *ee* and *ge* retain the *e* when followed by a syllable beginning with *a* or *o*, in order to preserve the soft sound of *c* or *g*; as, *changeable*, *peaceable*.

2. The *e* is retained in verbs ending in *oe* or *ee* when taking an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *fleeing*, *hoeing*.

3. *Singe*, *swing*, and *spring* retain the *e* when followed by *ing*, to distinguish them from *singing*, *swinging*, and *springing*.

4. *Dyeing* also retains the *e*, to distinguish it from *dying*.

Exercise.

Form words from the following according to the rule:

Cure, knave, festive, observe, enforce, universe, induce, shame, rogue, juice, price, note, wedge, choose, lace, debate, refuse, force, scale, value, sale, persevere, advise.

RULE 2.—Words ending in silent *e* generally retain the *e* on receiving an additional syllable beginning with a consonant; as, *shameful*, *lately*.

Exceptions.—Duly, truly, wholly, awful, nursling, wisdom, judgment, abridgment, argument, acknowledgment, and (according to some authorities) lodgment.

Exercise.

Form words from the following according to the rule:

Hope, desire, tune, peace, name, cease, guile, strange, home, manage, commence, advance, feeble, rude, wise, concrete, safe, spice, refine.

Final Y.

RULE 3.—Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change the *y* into *i* before any other termination or additional syllable than '*s*' and those beginning with *i*; as, *witty, wittily*.

Exceptions.—1. *Y* is changed to *e* in *beauteous, duteous, bounteous, piteous, plenteous*.

2. In the derivatives of *dry* (except *drier, driest*), *shy, sky, sly, spry, wry*, the *y* is not changed.

Exercise.

Form words from the following according to the rule:

Apply, simplify, comply, tardy, crazy, clumsy, ally, certify, hungry, steady, busy, mercy, happy, lazy, dingy, espy, many, friendly, fry, greedy, pity, plenty, sly, spry, dry, supply, occupy, qualify, cry, fallacy, holy, easy, shady.

RULE 4.—When a vowel precedes the final *y*, or when a suffix is added beginning with *i*, the *y* is generally retained in words on receiving an additional termination; as, *boy, boyish*.

Exceptions.—Pay, *paid*; lay, *laid, lain*; day, *daily*; say, *said*, saith; slay, *slain*; stay, *staid*,—with their compounds, *unpaid, mislaid*, etc.

Exercise.

Form words from the following according to the rule:

Boy, pray, gray, joy, obey, convey, allay, attorney, decoy, play, destroy, waylay, employ, lay, say, enjoy, try.

Final Consonant.

RULE 5.—Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant on taking an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *put, putting*; *begin, beginning*.

Exceptions.—1. In the derivatives of *gas*, *s* is not doubled.

2. The letters *x, k, v*, are never doubled.

Exercise.

Form words from the following according to the rule:

Bud, rob, distill, bed, thin, fin, gum, pet, acquit, compel, beg, refer, commit, excel, cut, tin, brag, hem, permit, begin, tug, omit, swim, hop, control, instill, expel, sin, plot, in, extol, repel.

RULE 6.—When a word ends with two consonants, when the last consonant is preceded by a diphthong, or when the accent is not on the last syllable; the final consonant is not doubled on receiving an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *cheat, cheated*; *benefit, benefited*.

Exceptions.—Tranquil, *tranquillity*; crystal, *crystalline*.

Remark.—Many writers double the final consonant when writing derivatives of the following: *bevel, cancel, level, kidnap, marvel, travel, worship*; as, *bevelled, cancellation*, etc.

Exercise.

Form words from the following according to the rule:

Bold, wild, suffer, pardon, sand, halt, boat, plead, shear, boom, prosper, bigot, count, prison, inherit, carpet, bonnet, oppress, fatten, dark, scout, mail, heal, rock, demand, pick, steam, girl, soon, limit, plunder, exhibit, tart, bleed.

Special Rules.

RULE 7.—In derivative words ending in the syllable *full* one of the *l's* is dropped ; as, *spoonful*.

Exercise.

Form words from the following according to the rule:

Jay, play, mind, will, pity, plenty, fancy, hand, cup.

RULE 8.—In such words as *receive*, *deceive*, etc., *o* is usually followed by *ei*, and the other letters of the alphabet by *ie* ; as, *relieve*, *retrieve*, etc.

Exercise.

Correct any errors that may be found in the following :

Achieve, believe, receipt, aggrieve, apeice, deceive, relieve, reprise, perceive, concieve, beseige, cashier, fronteir, conceit, deceit, seperate, begining, annoucment, payd, cringing, clinging, hinging, peacable, changing, rateable, duely, truely, judgement, abridgement, awefull, easiest, unpayd, carpetting, tranquillize, tranquillity, bigotted, ricketty, inheritted.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. Etymology treats of words, their classification, derivation, and properties.

Note—The word *etymology* is derived from the Greek *etymon*, the true meaning of a word, and *logos*, discourse.

2. With regard to their use, words are divided into eight classes, called **Parts of Speech**; namely, *Noun*, *Pronoun*, *Adjective*, *Verb*, *Adverb*, *Preposition*, *Conjunction*, and *Interjection*.

Remark.—Every word in the language is classified according to the use which is made of it in expressing thought.

A **Noun** is the name of anything; as, *boy*, *Philadelphia*, *mercy*.

A **Pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun; as, *her* bonnet, *our* books, “Tell John *he* may recite to *me*.”

An **Adjective** is a word used to limit or qualify a noun; as, *five* horses; *good* horses.

A **Verb** is a word used to express action, being, or state; as, “The boy *runs*” (action), “We *are*” (being), “They *sleep*” (state).

An **Adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb; as, “He eats *greedily*,” “The tree is *very* high,” “The boy’s kite flew *too* far.”

A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word; as, “The boy jumped *over* the brook.”

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, sentences, or parts of sentences ; as, “The boy can read and write,” “John sings, *but* Mary plays.”

An Interjection is a word used to express some strong or sudden emotion ; as, “Oh ! what a sight met our eyes !”

Remark.—The foregoing eight parts of speech include all the words of the language.

NOUNS.

A Noun is the name of anything ; as, *box, goodness, James, family.*

Remark.—1. The names of letters, words, figures, symbols, etc., are nouns. Thus, in the following sentences the names of the symbols +, −, and the italicized words and letters, are nouns : “+ is the sign of addition,” “− is the sign of subtraction,” “*A* is a vowel,” “*The* is an article.”

2. Any part of a sentence when used as a name may be called a noun ; as, “*No admission here*” was posted on the door.

Note.—The word *noun* is derived from the Latin *nomen*, a name.

Nouns are either *Common* or *Proper*.

A Common Noun is a name which applies to any one of a class of objects ; as, *boy, girl, town, river.*

A Proper Noun is the name which applies to some particular one of a class ; as, *John, Mary, Harrisburg, Potomac.*

A proper noun should begin with a capital letter.

Remark.—*Boy* is the name of a class and is a common noun, but the particular names *John, James, William*, etc., are all proper nouns. So also the common name by which all large

streams of water are called *is river*; hence the word *river* is a common noun, but the particular names of rivers, as, *Delaware, Ohio, Mississippi*, etc., are proper nouns.

When a proper noun is made to denote a class, which is usually done by placing an article before it, it becomes a common noun; as, "He is the *Cicero* of the age," that is, He is the *orator* of the age.

When a common name is used as the name of a particular object, it becomes a proper noun; as, *The Park; The Falls; The City*.

When two or more words not united are used as but one name, it is called a **Complex Noun**; as, *General George Washington, Duke of Orleans, William Henry Johnson, the Red Sea*.

When a noun consists of two or more words united it is called a **Compound Noun**; as, *man-of-war, brother-in-law*.

Exercise.

1. Name the class to which each of the following nouns belongs:

Snow, face, child, New York, John, Dr. Smith, schoolhouse, William Shakspeare, General Washington, Rip Van Winkle, neighbor, Newcastle, Sir Walter Scott, boy, Alleghany Mountains, United States, book, the River Mersey, Queen Victoria.

2. Name the nouns in the following expressions:

A bad workman quarrels with his tools. A tree is known by its fruit. George Washington was first President of the United States. It was the middle of April before Columbus reached Barcelona. The wind one morning sprang up from sleep.

3. Write nouns in the following blanks:

Mary is a diligent has not learned his
 discovered America was settled by
 was a celebrated English Will the shine to-
 night? Solomon was the of The were over-

thrown in the It was that slew was declared on the,

4. Write three sentences containing common nouns, also three containing proper nouns.

Classes of Common Nouns.

Some common nouns are classed as either *Collective*, *Abstract*, or *Verbal*.

A **Collective Noun** is the name of a collection; as, *family, army, drove*.

An **Abstract Noun** is the name of a quality apart from the substance to which it belongs; as, *wisdom, dullness, etc.*

A **Verbal Noun** is the name of some action, being, or state; as, *singing, teaching, resting*.

Verbal nouns are sometimes called **Participial nouns**.

Exercise.

1. Tell to which class each of the following nouns belongs:

Congress, wisdom, assembly, flock, singing, playing, group, army, goodness, mercy, writing, hope, herd, swarm, teaching, purity, crowd, school, swimming.

2. Fill the following blanks, and tell whether the noun which you write is collective, abstract, or verbal:

The _____ of the snow. The _____ was defeated. _____ is a healthful exercise. This is a large _____ of cattle. The farmer purchased a _____ of sheep. _____ is the best policy. The bird flew with the _____ of an arrow. His _____ was very distinct. The _____ of bees was lost.

3. Write two sentences, each containing a collective noun.

4. Write two sentences, each containing an abstract noun.

5. Write two sentences, each containing a verbal noun.

Properties of Nouns.

The Properties of nouns are *Number*, *Person*, *Gender*, and *Case*.

Number.

Number is that property of nouns which shows whether one is meant, or more than one.

Nouns have two numbers, the *Singular* and the *Plural*.

The **Singular Number** denotes but one; as, *boy*, *bench*.

The **Plural Number** denotes more than one; as, *boys*, *benches*.

Formation of the Plural.

1. Nouns generally are made plural by adding *s* to the singular; as, *book*, *books*; *girl*, *girls*; *chair*, *chairs*.

2. Nouns whose last sound will not unite with the sound of *s* usually form their plurals by adding *es* to the singular; as, *fox*, *foxes*; *church*, *churches*; *gas*, *gases*; *blush*, *blushes*.

Remark.—The form *es* ends with the sound of *z*, which will unite to make a pleasant sound where *s* will not.

3. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, in forming their plurals, change the *y* to *ies*; as, *lady*, *ladies*; *army*, *armies*.

Remark.—The former spelling of such words as *glory*, *lady*, etc., was *glorie*, *ladie*, etc.; hence it may be said that they form their plurals regularly by changing the *y* to *ie* and adding *s*.

4. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel form their plurals by adding *s*; as, *boy*, *boys*; *day*, *days*.

5. Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel add *s* only in forming their plurals; as, *cameo*, *cameos*; *folio*, *folios*.

6. Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant usually add *es* in forming their plurals; as, *hero*, *heroes*; *echo*, *echoes*.

Exceptions.—The plural of *two* is written *twos*. The following are usually written *cantos*, *halos*, *quartos*, *juntos*, *duodecimos*, *octavos*, *solos*, *tyros*, *pianos*, *armadillos*, *mementos*, *lassos*, *provisos*.

7. Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* are made plural by changing *f* or *fe* to *ves*; as, *beef*, *beeves*; *wife*, *wives*.

Remark.—The following form their plurals by adding *s*—namely; *Brief*, *chief*, *dwarf*, *fife*, *grief*, *gulf*, *hoof*, *roof*, *kerchief*, *handkerchief*, *mischief*, *proof*, *reproof*, *safe*, *scarf*, *surf*, *turf*, *strife*.

8. Nouns ending in *ff* form their plurals by adding *s*; as, *muff*, *muffs*.

Exceptions.—*Staff*, a stick, has *staves* for its plural, but the compounds *flagstaff*, *tipstaff*, etc., add *s* only.

9. When other parts of speech become nouns they form their plurals according to the foregoing rules; as, “The *ins* and *outs*,” “The *ifs* and *buts*.”

10. Figures, letters, and signs form their plurals by the addition of the apostrophe (') and the letter *s*; as, *a*, *a's*; *9*, *9's*; *+*, *+'s*; ***, **'s*.

Note.—The apostrophe takes the place of an omitted letter, probably *e*. Thus, *ies*, *+ es* (pluses) become *i's*, *+'s*.

Exercise.

Write the plurals of the following nouns:

Book, bonnet, hat, bench, sash, church, fish, tax, atlas, story, day, attorney, lady, glory, chimney, valley, play, fancy, cherry, theory,

ally, alley, baby, essay, folio, negro, potato, bamboo, cameo, motto, mulatto, seraglio, buffalo, veto, calf, stuff, scarf, shelf, sheaf, roof, chief, distaff, elf, half, if, six, the, 6, —, o, !, θ, s, fife, five, 5.

Irregular Plurals.

The following plural forms are irregular:

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Man,	men.	Foot,	feet.	Mouse,	mice.
Woman,	women.	Tooth,	teeth.	Louse,	lice.
Child,	children.	Ox,	oxen.	Goose,	geese.

The following nouns have both regular and irregular plurals:

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Brother, brothers (of a family), brethren (of a society).	
Die, dies (stamps for coining), dice (cubes for gaming).	
Genius, geniuses (men of genius), genii (spirits).	
Fish, fishes (individuals), fish (quantity or species).	
Index, indexes (tables of contents), indices (exponents).	
Penny, pennies (coins), pence (amount of value).	
Pea, peas (two or more), pease (kind or species).	
Cow, cows (two or more), kine (the kind).	

Plurals of Proper Nouns.

1. **Proper Nouns** form their plurals regularly like common nouns, usually adding *s* only; as, *Cæsar, Cæsars*; *Mary, the two Marys*; *Indian, Indians*; *Canada, Canadas*.

Note.—*Marys* is also sometimes written *Maries*, and *Henrys*, *Henries*.

2. **Complex Proper Nouns** form their plurals by annexing the sign of the plural to the last word only; as, the *Sir Isaac Newtons*, the *George Washingtons*.

3. When a proper name is preceded by a title, the plural termination may be annexed to either the name or the title, but not to both.

Examples.—The Miss Bertrams.—*Sir Walter Scott.* The Miss Burtons.—*Bulwer.* The two Mr. Wellers.—*Dickens.* The Miss Hornecks.—*Irving.* The Misses Smith.—*Bryant.* The Ladies Butler.—*Swift.*

4. When the title *Mrs.* or a numeral precedes the proper name, the name only is made plural; as, The two Miss Scotts.—*Irving.* The Mrs. Welbys.

5. When the title belongs to several names, the title is made plural; as, Messrs. Westcott and Thomson; Messrs. Smith, Jones, and Robinson.

6. When two titles are equally prominent, both are made plural; as, The *Lords Commissioners* North and Russell.

Plurals of Compound Nouns.

1. In **Compound Nouns** the part which names the object is made plural; as, *schoolhouse*, *schoolhouses*; *mouse-trap*, *mouse-traps*; *father-in-law*, *fathers-in-law*; *attorney-general*, *attorneys-general*; *major-general*, *major-generals*; *hanger-on*, *hangers-on*.

Remark.—1. In such words as *spoonful*, *cupful*, etc., the word *ful* names the object, *cup* and *spoon* being modifying words; hence the plurals are *spoonfuls*, *cupfuls*, etc., meaning one spoon or one cup full a number of times.

2. If more than one spoon or cup were meant, it should be written *spoons full* and *cups full*, but not with a hyphen or as one word.

2. Compound nouns taken from foreign languages form their plurals regularly by annexing the plural ending to the last term; as *pianofortes*, *ipse-dixits*, *scire-faciases*, *hab eas-corpuses*.

3. A few compound nouns have both words made plural; as, *men-servants*, *women-servants*, *ignes fatui*.

4. Words ending with the syllable *man*, not being compounds of the word *man*, form their plurals by adding *s*; as, *Germans*, *Turcomans*, *Mussulmans*, etc.

Exercise.

Write the plural of the following nouns:

Woman, mouse, mouse-trap, ox, fox, man, man-servant, cow, fish, Carolina, Cicero, Oliver Cromwell, Miss Thompson, Mr. Peters, (Mr.) Brown and Thompson, (Dr.) Beaver and Bright, Lord Bishop, major-general, postmaster-general, brigadier-general, auditor-general, son-in-law, coachful, wagon-load, court-martial, goose-feather, penny-a-liner, outpouring, gentleman, Ottoman, commander-in-chief, camera-obscura, (the two) Mr. Brown, (the two) Miss Brown.

Plurals of Foreign Nouns.

Some foreign nouns adopted into our language have two forms of the plural, an English and a foreign one. Among the most familiar are the following:

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>English Plural.</i>	<i>Foreign Plural.</i>
Bandit,	bandits,	banditti.
Beau,	beaus,	beaux.
Cherub,	cherubs,	cherubim.
Encomium,	encomiums,	encomia.
Focus,	focuses,	foci.
Fungus,	funguses,	fungi.
Gymnasium,	gymnasiums,	gymnasia.
Medium,	mediums,	media.
Seraph,	seraphs,	seraphim.
Stamen,	stamens,	stamina.

Most foreign nouns retain their original plurals. Among the most familiar are the following:

Addendum, addenda.	Analysis, analyses.
Alumnus, alumni.	Antithesis, antitheses.
Amanuensis, amanuenses.	Axis, axes.

Basis,	bases.	Madame,	mesdames.
Crisis,	crises.	Metamorphosis,	metamorphoses.
Criterion,	criteria.	Monsieur,	messieurs.
Datum,	data.	Nebula,	nebulæ.
Desideratum,	desiderata.	Oasis,	oases.
Diæresis,	diæreses.	Parenthesis,	parentheses.
Effluvium,	effluvia.	Phenomenon,	phenomena-
Ellipsis,	ellipses.	Radius,	radii.
Emphasis,	emphases.	Stimulus,	stimuli.
Erratum,	errata.	Stratum,	strata.
Genus,	genera.	Terminus,	termini.
Hypothesis,	hypotheses.	Thesis,	theses.
Larva,	larvæ.	Vertebra,	vertebræ.
		Vertex,	vertices.

Remarks on Number.

1. Abstract nouns ; the names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, and sciences ; and the names of things measured, have no plural form ; as, *wisdom, gold, temperance, drawing, history, flour, milk*.

Remark.—1. When different kinds of the same substance are referred to, the plural form may be used ; as, *sugars, cloths, teas*.

2. The names of sciences ending with *ics*, as, *mathematics, optics, mechanics*, are singular.

3. *Alms* (from *almesse*), *news, molasses*, are singular, though seemingly having the plural form.

2. Some nouns have no singular form. The most common are the following :

Archives, ashes, bellows, billiards, bitters, cattle, clothes, compasses, goods, manners, measles, morals, nuptials, nippers, pincers, pantaloons, scissors, thanks, tongs, tidings, tweezers, trowsers, shears, scales, vitals, wages.

3. Some nouns are alike in form in both numbers ; as, *deer, sheep, trout, salmon, vermin, apparatus, series, species, means, odds, pains* (efforts), *riches*, etc.

Remark.—*Head, brace, pair, couple, dozen, score, hundred, etc.,* though having the singular form, are either singular or plural, but they may be used also with the plural form. They take the singular form when preceded by a numeral. At other times they usually have the plural form. Thus, 6 *pair* of gloves. They came in *pairs*.

Note.—When nouns have the same form in both numbers, the number can be told only by the meaning of the noun in the sentence.

Exercise.

Name the nouns in the following sentences, give the class, and tell the number of each:

The stream abounds in trout. What is the news this morning? Five deer were killed. One deer escaped. Hundreds of people came to see the show. The owl is a species of bird. A thousand head of cattle feed on the plains. Shall we purchase by the dozen or by the hundred? The idle boy takes no pains to learn. Ethics is the science of duty. Trout and salmon swim against the stream.—*Bacon.* The left lung is the larger.

Person.

Person is that property of a word which shows whether the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of, is meant.

Nouns have three persons—the *First*, the *Second*, and the *Third*.

The **First Person** denotes the *speaker*; as, “I, *Henry*, studied.”

The **Second Person** denotes the *hearer* or *person addressed*; as, “*Henry*, come to see us.”

The **Third Person** denotes the *person* or *thing spoken of*; as, “*Henry* has come,” “The *sun* melts the *ice*.”

Nouns are mostly in the third person.

Exercise.

Name the nouns in the following sentences, and tell their class, number, and person :

King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets? Friends, Romans, countrymen! lend me your ears. I, John Thompson, do testify.

Thou art, O God, the life and light
Of all this wondrous world we see.

Children, listen to the advice of your parents and teachers. Never spend your money before you have it. I have read the President's message.

Gender.

Gender is a distinction of nouns in regard to sex.

Nouns have four genders—the *Masculine*, the *Feminine*, the *Common*, and the *Neuter*.

The **Masculine Gender** denotes the names of males; as, *boy, man, hero, king, Mr. Dickens*.

The **Feminine Gender** denotes the names of females; as, *girl, woman, heroine, queen, Miss Rogers*.

The **Common Gender** denotes the names common to either males or females, or both; as, *child, bird, people, parents, neighbor*.

The **Neuter Gender** denotes the names of objects without sex; as, *tree, box, stove, Philadelphia*.

Remark.—The words gender and sex must not be confounded. There are only two sexes, male and female, but four genders, as given above. Some grammarians omit the *Common Gender*, but inasmuch as there are some nouns which include both sexes, as, *parents, children, etc.*, it is incorrect to say that these nouns may be regarded as masculine. They are names common to both sexes, and are therefore properly of the common gender.

Methods of Distinguishing Sex.

1. By Different Words :

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor,	maid.	Husband,	wife.
Beau,	belle.	King,	queen.
Boy,	girl.	Lad,	lass.
Brother,	sister.	Lord,	lady.
Buck,	doe.	Male,	female.
Bull,	cow.	Man,	woman.
Bullock,	heifer.	Master,	mistress.
Cock,	hen.	Mr.,	Mrs.
Drake,	duck.	Nephew,	niece.
Earl,	countess.	Papa,	mamma.
Father,	mother.	Sire,	dam.
Friar, monk, nun.		Sir,	madam.
Gander,	goose.	Son,	daughter.
Gentleman,	lady.	Stag,	hind.
Hart,	roe.	Uncle,	aunt.
Horse,	mare.	Wizard,	witch.

2. By a Difference of Termination :

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot,	abbess.	Duke,	duchess.
Actor,	actress.	Editor,	editress.
Ambassador,	ambassador.	Elector,	electress.
Anchorite,	anchoress.	Emperor,	empress.
Author,	authoress.	Enchanter,	enchantress
Arbiter,	arbitress.	Founder,	foundress.
Baron,	baroness.	Giant,	giantess.
Benefactor,	benefactress.	God,	goddess.
Caterer,	cateress.	Governor,	governess.
Chanter,	chantress.	Heir,	heiress.
Conductor,	conductress.	Host,	hostess.
Count,	countess.	Hunter,	huntress.
Dauphin,	dauphiness.	Instructor,	instructress.
Deacon,	deaconess.	Jew,	Jewess.
Director,	directress.	Lion,	lioness.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Marquis,	marchioness.	Tiger,	tigress.
Mayor,	mayoress.	Traitor,	traiotress.
Monitor,	monitress.	Tutor,	tutoress.
Negro,	negress.	Viscount,	viscountess.
Patron,	patroness.	Votary,	votaress.
Peer,	peeress.	Administrator,	administratrix.
Poet,	poetess.	Executor,	executrix.
Priest,	priestess.	Testator,	testatrix.
Prince,	princess.	Prosecutor,	prosecutrix.
Prior,	priores.	Landgrave,	landgravine.
Prophet,	prophetess.	Hero,	heroine.
Proprietor,	proprietress.	Equestrian,	equestrienne.
Protector,	protectress.	Tragedian,	tragedienne.
Shepherd,	shepherdess.	Don,	donna.
Songster,	songstess.	Sultan,	sultana.
Sorcerer,	sorceress.	Signor,	signora.
Tailor,	tailoress.	Czar,	czarina.

3. By forming Compound Words :

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Archduke,	archduchess.	Landlord,	landlady.
Cock-sparrow,	hen-sparrow.	Man-servant,	maid-servant.
Gentleman,	gentlewoman.	Peacock,	peahen.
Grandfather,	grandmother.	Schoolmaster,	schoolmistress.
He-goat,	she-goat.	Stepfather,	stepmother.

Remarks on Gender.

1. Some masculine nouns have no corresponding feminine; as, *printer*, *baker*, *lawyer*,
2. Some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine; as, *seamstress*, *brunette*.
3. When common nouns of the neuter gender are personified—that is, represented as having personal qualities—the masculine or the feminine gender is applied to them; as, “The *ship* moves forward in *her* course,” “The *sun* fills the earth with *his* glory.”

When personified, the names of objects noted for *firmness*, *power*, *boldness*, etc., as, *war*, *sun*, *anger*, are said to be *mascu-*

line; and those characterized by the feminine attributes of *gentleness, beauty, etc.*, as, *moon, nature, virtue*, are said to be *feminine*.

4. The sex of young children and the lower animals is often disregarded; as, "The dog chased the *rabbit* till he caught *it*," "The little *child* hurt *itself*."

5. A collective noun is neuter when the collection of objects is taken as one body; as, "The army in *its* march destroyed everything."

But when the objects are considered separately, the gender must correspond to the sex of the individuals; as, "The class asked that *they* (*mas.* or *fem.*) might be dismissed."

Exercise.

Name the gender of each of the following nouns, and give the corresponding masculine or feminine:

Heroine, beau, shepherd, baron, son, sultana, wizard, count, nephew, son-in-law, poet, executor, queen, girl, master, marquis, widower, lady, earl, empress, priest, sister, sir, wife.

Case.

Case is that property of nouns which denotes their relation to other words.

There are three cases—the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*.

The **Nominative Case** is that in which the noun is used as the subject of a proposition; as, "*James* learns rapidly," "The *bird* was caught," "*Henry* caught the *bird*."

Note.—The subject of a proposition is that of which something is said or asserted.

The **Possessive Case** is that which denotes possession, ownership, or origin; as, *Mary's* slate; The *boy's* dog; *Campbell's* poems.

Note.—The Possessive case may imply intended possession as well as actual possession, as in the expression, “*Boys' hats for sale.*”

The **Objective Case** is that in which the noun is used as the object of a preposition or a transitive verb in the active voice.

Formation of the Possessive.

The forms for the Nominative and the Objective are alike.

The Possessive singular of nouns is usually formed by annexing the apostrophe and the letter *s* ('s) to the nominative form ; as, *John*, *John's* ; *boy*, *boy's*.

When the nominative plural ends in *s*, the possessive plural is regularly formed by annexing the apostrophe only ; as, *boys*, *boys'* ; *ladies*, *ladies'*.

When the nominative plural does not end in *s*, the possessive is formed by annexing both the apostrophe and the *s* ; as, *men*, *men's* ; *children*, *children's*.

The possessive sign always follows the full form of the nominative ; thus :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>		
<i>Nom.</i> Son-in-law,	<i>Pos.</i> son-in-law's.	<i>Nom.</i> Sons-in-law.	<i>Pos.</i> sons-in-law's.
Fly,	fly's.	Flies,	flies'.
Mouse,	mouse's.	Mice,	mice's.
Church,	church's.	Churches,	churches'.

When the nominative is alike in both numbers, the apostrophe may, for the sake of distinction, precede the *s* in the singular, and follow it in the plural ; as, “*A sheep's ears*,” “*Sheeps' hides were for sale.*”

When the nominative ends with the sound of *s* or *z*, the *s* of the possessive sign is sometimes omitted, espe-

~~line~~ ~~ifly~~ when the next word begins with the sound of *s* or *z*; as, "For conscience' sake," "Moses' laws."

The preceding form may be avoided by using a preposition; as, "For the sake of conscience," "The laws of Moses."

A better rule would be the following: When the nominative ends with the sound of *z*, the *s* of the possessive sign should be omitted for the sake of euphony.

The possessive sign, '*s*', is an abbreviation of the ancient form *is* or *es*. Thus, "The *kyngis* crowne." "The *knightes* tale."—Chaucer. "In *widdowes* habite."—Chaucer.

Remark.—The apostrophe usually marks the omission of a letter; as, *o'er*, for over; *king's*, for kingis; *6's*, for 6es.

General Remarks on Case.

1. The nominative case is used not only as the subject, but also sometimes as the attribute after an intransitive verb; as, *John* is a wise *man*.

2. A noun is in the *Nominative Case Independent* when it is independent of any other word in the sentence; as, *John*, come here; The *boy* having recited, he retired. By some grammarians this is called the *Absolute Case* or *Nominative Absolute*.

3. The *Nominative Case* answers the question *Who?* or *What?* as, Who came? *John* came.—What caused the alarm? A *fire* caused the alarm.

4. The *Objective Case* answers the question *Whom?* or *What?* as, Whom did he call? He called *Mary*.—What did the boy see? The boy saw an *eagle*.—In what does the fish live? The fish lives in *water*.

Inflection.

Inflection is the variation of nouns and pronouns by

declension, adjectives, and adverbs by *comparison*, and verbs by *conjugation*.

The Declension of nouns is their variation to show the number and the case.

Examples.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
Girl,	girl's,	girl.	Girls,	girls',	girls.
Boy,	boy's,	boy.	Boys,	boys',	boys.
Lady,	lady's,	lady.	Ladies,	ladies',	ladies.
Child,	child's,	child.	Children,	children's,	children.
Church,	church's,	church.	Churches,	churches',	churches.
Fly,	fly's,	fly.	Flies,	flies',	flies.
Fox,	fox's,	fox.	Foxes,	foxes',	foxes.
Ox,	ox's,	ox.	Oxen,	oxen's,	oxen.
Mouse,	mouse's,	mouse.	Mice,	mice's,	mice.
Deer,	deer's,	deer.	Deer,	deers',	deer.

Exercise.

Write the declension of the following nouns:

Dog, horse, man, teacher, box, flower, desk, sky, friend, rose, goose day, squirrel, lily, sister, sister-in-law, general, major-general, post master-general, court-martial, potato, book-keeper, pear-tree.

Write the possessive, singular and plural, of the following nouns:

Valley, school-house, son-in-law, cupful, German, tooth-brush, church, trout, hanger-on, President Adams, wife, thief, roof, Turco-man, auditor-general, lieutenant-governor.

Name the case of each of the nouns in the following:

The leaves have fallen. The tree has shed its leaves. The mountains look brown. The boy chased a dog. The dog was chased by the boy. Washington's army retreated to Princeton. The soldier's arm was lost in the battle of Brandywine. Industry produces wealth. The earnest student gains knowledge daily. School has been dismissed.

Parsing.

Parsing consists—

1. In naming the part of speech.
2. In telling its properties.
3. In showing its relation to other words, and giving the rule for its construction.

In parsing a noun use the following formula :

- (1.) It is a *noun*, and why.
- (2.) *Common* or *proper*, and why.
- (3.) The *number*, and why.
- (4.) The *person*, and why.
- (5.) The *gender*, and why.
- (6.) The *case*, and why.
- (7.) Give the rule.

Note.—The rules may be omitted until the subject of syntax is reached.

Models for Parsing Nouns.

Mary saw her brother's boats on the river.

Mary . . . is a noun, it is a name ;

Proper, it is the name of a particular person ;
 Singular number, it means but one ;
 Third person, it is spoken of ;
 Feminine gender, it is the name of a female ;
 Nominative case, it is the subject of "Mary saw."

Brother's is a noun, it is a name ;

Common, it is the name of a class ;
 Singular number, it means but one ;
 Third person, it is spoken of ;
 Masculine gender, it is the name of a male ;
 Possessive case, it limits the noun *boats*.

Remark.—After the preceding form has been thoroughly learned the following may be used to save time :

Condensed Form.

Boats is a common noun, of the plural number, third person, neuter gender ; it is in the objective case, being object of the verb *saw*.

River is a common noun, of the singular number, third person, neuter gender; it is in the objective case, used as the object of the preposition *on*.

Written Form.

The following written form may be used:

Nouns.	Kind.	Num.	Per.	Gen.	Case.	Government.
Mary, brother's, boats, river,	Proper, Common, " "	Sing., " Plur., Sing.,	3d, " " "	Fem., Mas., Neut., "	Nom., Pos., Obj., "	Subject of <i>saw</i> . Limits <i>boats</i> . Object of <i>saw</i> . Object of <i>on</i> .

Exercise.

Parse the nouns in the following:

1. A thing of beauty is a joy for ever.—*Keats*.
2. He that loveth God will do diligence to please God by his works.—*Chaucer*.
3. Drunkenness calls off the watchmen from the towers.—*Ben Jonson*.
4. Intemperance is a dangerous companion.—*Jeremy Taylor*.
5. Christian life consists in faith and charity.—*Locke*.
6. We put too much faith in systems, and look too little to men.—*Disraeli*.
7. A man's good-breeding is the best security against other people's ill-manners.—*Chesterfield*.
8. When death strikes down the innocent and young, for every fragile form from which he sets the parting spirit free, a hundred virtues rise, in shapes of mercy, charity, and love, to walk the world and bless it.—*Dickens*.
9. The little I have seen of the world, and known of the history of mankind, teaches me to look on the errors of others in sorrow, and not in anger.—*Longfellow*.
10. The busy click of machinery, the merry ring of the anvil, the lowing of peaceful herds, and the song of the harvest-home, are sweeter music than the peans of departed glory or songs of triumph in war.—*Bishop Whipple*.
11. Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability.—*Bacon*.

12. The breaking waves dashed high
 On a stern and rock-bound coast,
 And the woods against a stormy sky
 Their giant branches tossed.—*Mrs. Hemans.*
13. The lightest wave of influence, set in motion,
 Extends and widens to the eternal ocean.—*Mrs. Bolton.*
14. The sea, the sea, the open sea,
 The blue, the fresh, the ever free;
 Without a mark, without a bound,
 It runneth the earth's wide regions round.—*Barry Cornwall.*

Synopsis.

Nouns	<i>Common</i>	Collective, Abstract, Verbal.	<i>Number</i> ,	<i>Singular,</i>
	<i>Proper</i> —			<i>Plural.</i>
		Properties Complex, Compound.	<i>Person</i> ,	<i>First,</i>
				<i>Second,</i>
		Gender, Case,	<i>Third.</i>	<i>Third.</i>
				Masculine, Feminine, Common, Neuter.
		Case,	Nominative, Possessive, Objective.	Nominative, Possessive, Objective.

ADJECTIVES.

An **Adjective** is a word used to limit or qualify a noun or a pronoun.

Ex.—*One book ; that man ; large trees ; white clouds.*

Note.—The word *adjective* is derived from the Latin *ad*, to, and *jacere*, to throw.

Classes of Adjectives.

Adjectives may be divided into two classes—*Limiting* and *Qualifying*.

A **Limiting Adjective** is one that limits or defines the meaning of a noun without expressing any quality ; as, *one, twenty, this, that, either, neither, a, an, the, such, both*.

A **Qualifying Adjective** is one that expresses a quality ; as, *wise, good, little, beautiful*.

Sub-Classes.

Limiting adjectives embrace *Articles, Numeral Adjectives, and Pronominal Adjectives*.

Articles.

The limiting adjectives *the* and *a* or *an* are called *Articles*.

The is called the *Definite Article*. It is used to point out some particular object ; as, *the teacher, the earth*.

The may be used to limit a noun in either the singular or the plural number.

A or *an* is called the *Indefinite Article*, because it may limit any noun ; as, *a house, a book*.

A or *an* is used to limit a noun in the singular number only.

A is used before nouns beginning with a consonant sound ; as, *a man, a unit*.

An is used before nouns beginning with a vowel sound ; as, *an apple, an orange*.

Remark.—*An* is used by some writers before words beginning

with the sound of *h* when the word is accented on the second syllable; as, an *historical* sketch.

Note. — *A* and *an* are both derived from the Anglo-Saxon *ane*, meaning one.

Numeral Adjectives.

Numeral Adjectives are those which express number; as, *one*, *first*, etc.

Numeral adjectives embrace *Cardinals*, *Ordinals*, and *Multiplicatives*.

Cardinals denote how many; as, *four*, *eighty*.

Ordinals denote what order; as, *fourth*, *eightieth*.

Multiplicatives denote how many fold; as, *double* or *twofold*, *triple* or *threefold*.

Pronominal Adjectives.

Pronominal Adjectives are those which may, without the use of an article, represent a noun understood; as, *each*, *this*, *some*.

Pronominal adjectives are of three kinds—*Distributive*, *Demonstrative*, and *Indefinite*.

Distributives are those which point out objects singly.

The distributives are *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

They always limit nouns in the singular number.

Demonstratives are those which point out objects definitely.

The demonstratives are *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *former*, *latter*.

This and *that* limit nouns in the singular number, and *these* and *those* limit nouns in the plural.

Indefinites are those which point out objects indefinitely.

The indefinites are *some*, *one*, *any*, *all*, *such*, *none*, *other*, *another*.

Remarks on Adjectives.

Qualifying adjectives include *Participial* adjectives.

Participial adjectives are participles which are placed before nouns to qualify them; as, "The *rising* sun," "The *running* brook."

A **Proper** adjective is one derived from a proper name; as, *American*, *English*.

A **Common** adjective is one not derived from a proper name; as, *good*, *wicked*, *large*.

A **Factive** adjective is one which is made by a verb to qualify its object; as, the word *clean* in the sentence "They washed their hands *clean*."

A **Complex** adjective consists of two or more words taken together to describe a noun; as, a *pale blue sky*; a *sea green* color; a *cherry red silk*; *one hundred and two dollars*.

A **Compound** adjective is a compound word used as an adjective; as, *moth-eaten*, *good-natured*.

A noun may be used as an adjective when it describes another noun; as, an *iron* chain; a *gold* ring.

An adjective may be used as a noun when it is used as a name; as, "The *poor* ye have always," "The *good* are happy," "She prefers *blue* to *red*."

When a pronominal adjective limits the noun expressed, it may be parsed simply as an adjective; as in the expression, "*This* difficult lesson."

When a pronominal adjective represents the noun understood, it may be parsed as a pronoun; as in the sentence, "*This* is a difficult lesson."

Exercise.

Name the adjective, and tell its class, in each of the following expressions:

A new house. A good boy. Ten large horses. The first lesson. This old man. Those six red apples. A very small pony. One nice orange. These flowers are scarce. This rose is beautiful. The running brook teaches a lesson of industry. Three boys bought the gold chain for the teacher. This apple is larger than that. The knife cost seventy-five cents. My new carriage cost two hundred and fifty dollars. Strive to be an honest man. The diligent pupils succeed. An ill-mannered boy is not agreeable. Neither pupil has come this morning. Our nearest neighbor is a hard-working man. The wall was built solid. We painted the door white.

Comparison of Adjectives.

Comparison of adjectives is their variation to express different degrees of quality.

There are three degrees of comparison—the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

The **Positive** degree denotes a quality without a comparison; as, *long, small*; “Gold is *hard*.”

The **Comparative** degree is used to express a higher or a lower degree of quality than is expressed by the positive; as, *longer, smaller*; “Steel is *harder* than gold.”

The **Superlative** degree is used to express the highest or the lowest degree of any quality; as, *longest, smallest*; “The diamond is one of the *hardest* of substances.”

Remark.—The Comparative degree may be used—

- When two objects have the same quality.

Ex.—Gold is *heavier* than silver.

- To show two conditions of the same object.

Ex.—We are *wiser* to-day than we were yesterday.

- To show different qualities of the same object.

Ex.—The child was *more sick* than *fretful*.

Words of one syllable form the comparative regularly by annexing *-er* to the positive, and the superlative by annexing *-est*; as, *old*, *older*, *oldest*; *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*.

Dissyllables ending in *-le* and *-y* are compared like monosyllables; as, *able*, *abler*, *ablest*; *pretty*, *prettier*, *prettiest*.

Other words of more than one syllable form the comparative by prefixing *more* or *less* to the positive, and the superlative by prefixing *most* or *least*; as, *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*; *indolent*, *less indolent*, *least indolent*.

Irregular Comparisons.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good,	better,	best.
Bad,		
Evil,	worse,	worst.
Ill,		
Much,	more,	most.
Many,		
Little,	{ less, lesser,	least.
Near,	nearer,	{ nearest, next.
Late,	{ later, latter,	{ latest, last.
Old,	{ older, elder,	{ oldest, eldest.
Far,	farther,	{ farthest, farthermost.
Fore,	former,	{ first, foremost.

Remarks on Comparison.

1. A diminution of quality is denoted by annexing *-ish* to the positive; as, *bluish*, *sweetish*, *blackish*.
2. The adjectives *superior*, *inferior*, *anterior*, *preferable*, *previous*, and others of a like nature which suggest the idea of comparison, do not admit of the forms of comparison.
3. *Limiting* adjectives are not compared.
4. *Qualifying* adjectives, denoting qualities which cannot exist in different degrees, such as *round*, *square*, *supreme*, etc., are not usually compared.

Many of the best writers of English, however, have used the comparative and the superlative form of these adjectives, on the theory that these words are not used in a strict sense.

Examples.—The most perfect society.—*Everett*. Sight is the most perfect of our senses.—*Addison*. The extredest verge.—*Shakspeare*. Less perfect imitations.—*Macaulay*. First and chiefest.—*Milton*.

It is best, however, to use some other form of expression; as, “The most nearly perfect,” etc.

Exercise.

Compare such of the following adjectives as admit of comparison:

Large, small, little, sick, ill, skillful, beautiful, spicy, few, good, evil, late, far, industrious, noble, square, ample, happy, agreeable, polite, much, round, circular, high, near, many, universal, inferior, preferable.

Name the degree of comparison of each of the following adjectives:

Wiser, more juicy, most spiteful, white, best, worse, most upright, most polite, least handsome, more beautiful, fewest, last, former, farthest, richer, less, small, evil, most, happier, nearest, just.

Correct the following where wrong:

Littlest, beautifuller, more evil, more richer, most unkindest, squarest, agreeablest, delightsulest.

Parsing of Adjectives.

Models.

1. A pretty flower is not always the most fragrant.

FULL FORM.

Pretty . . is a qualifying adjective, it denotes a quality :

It is compared *pretty, prettier, prettiest* ;

It is in the positive degree ;

And qualifies the noun *flower*.

Most fragrant is a qualifying adjective, it denotes quality ;

It is compared *fragrant, more fragrant, most fragrant* ;

It is in the superlative degree ;

And qualifies the noun *flower*, understood.

2. The wisest men make mistakes.

CONDENSED FORM.

Wisest is a qualifying adjective of the superlative degree, and qualifies the noun *men*.

3. This month has thirty days.

This is a pronominal adjective, and limits the noun *month*.

Thirty is a numeral adjective, and limits the noun *days*.

4. The floating clouds are rich with golden tints.

WRITTEN FORM.

Adjectives.	Kind.	Degree.	Modifies.
The, floating, rich, golden,	limiting, qualifying, “ “ positive. “ “	clouds. “ “ tints.

Exercise.

Parse the adjectives and the nouns in the following sentences :

1. Evil thoughts are more dangerous than wild beasts.

2. There is no better relief to study than the regular performance of special duties in the house.—*Holland*.

3. Mankind are always better for having been once happy.—*Sydney Smith.*
4. On the grassy bank stood a tall waving ash, sound to the very top.—*Dickens.*
5. A happy life means prudent compromise.—*Mrs. Browning.*
6. A cheerful temper, joined with innocence, will make beauty attractive, knowledge delightful, and wit good-natured.—*Addison.*
7. I believe the first test of a truly great man is himself.—*Ruskin.*
8. A wide, rich heaven hangs above you, but it hangs high. A wide, rough world is around you, and it lies very low.—*D. G. Mitchell.*
9. New occasions teach new duties;
 Time makes ancient good uncouth,
 They must upward still, and onward,
 Who would keep abreast the truth.—*Lowell.*
10. Our little lives are kept in equipoise
 By opposite attractions and desires.—*Longfellow.*

Synopsis.

Adjectives	<i>Limiting,</i>	Article,	{ Definite, Indefinite.
		Numeral,	
		Pronominal,	
	<i>Qualifying.</i>	<i>Comparison,</i>	{ Positive, Comparative, Superlative.

PRONOUNS.

A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun; as,
 “The boy lost *his* book.”

In the preceding sentence the word *his* is used instead of the noun *boy*. It is therefore a pronoun.

The word for which the pronoun is used is called the *Antecedent*.

The antecedent may be a noun, a pronoun, or any phrase or clause used as a noun.

Ex.—*John* has recited *his* lesson. *We* have learned *our* lessons. *I* have been *idle*, and *I* am sorry for *it*.

Sometimes the antecedent is omitted; as, “Who breaks must pay.” The antecedent *he* is omitted before *who*.

Note.—The word *pronoun* is from the Latin *pro*, for, and *nomen*, a name.

Properties of Pronouns.

Pronouns have the same properties as nouns—*Number*, *Person*, *Gender*, and *Case*.

The *number*, *person*, and *gender* of a pronoun are the same as those of the noun which it represents, but the case is determined by the relation of the pronoun to other words in the sentence.

Classes of Pronouns.

Pronouns are divided into three classes—*Personal*, *Relative*, and *Interrogative*.

A **Personal Pronoun** is one which shows by its form the person of the noun which it represents.

Personal pronouns are of two kinds—*Simple* and *Compound*.

The *Simple* personal pronouns are *I*, of the first per-

son; *thou*, of the second person; and *he*, *she*, and *it*, of the third person.

I and *thou* may be either masculine or feminine gender; *he* is of the masculine, *she* of the feminine, and *it* of the neuter gender.

Declension of Simple Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> I,	We,
<i>Poss.</i> My or Mine,	Our or Ours,
<i>Obj.</i> Me,	Us.

SECOND PERSON.—*Solemn Style.*

<i>Nom.</i> Thou,	Ye or You,
<i>Poss.</i> Thy or Thine,	Your or Yours,
<i>Obj.</i> Thee,	You.

SECOND PERSON.—*Common Style.*

<i>Nom.</i> You,	You,
<i>Poss.</i> Your or Yours,	Your or Yours,
<i>Obj.</i> You,	You.

THIRD PERSON.—*Masculine.*

<i>Nom.</i> He,	They,
<i>Poss.</i> His,	Their or Theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> Him,	Them.

THIRD PERSON.—*Feminine.*

<i>Nom.</i> She,	They,
<i>Poss.</i> Her or hers,	Their or Theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> Her,	Them.

THIRD PERSON.—*Neuter.*

<i>Nom.</i> It,	They,
<i>Poss.</i> Its,	Their or Theirs,
<i>Obj.</i> It,	Them.

Remarks.

We and *our*, though in the plural number, are often used by editors, speakers, and writers to denote but one person.

Ex.—"We do not believe our statement will be questioned."

Thou (plural *ye*) is used in the solemn style, but in the common style *you* is used in both the singular and the plural, though the verb always agrees with *you* in the plural number.

As there is no personal pronoun in the third person, singular number, and common gender, *he* is commonly used when reference is made to both sexes; as, "*He* that hath ears to hear, let *him* hear."

My, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *her*, and *their* are used when the noun is expressed; as, *my book*, *your sleigh*.

Mine, *ours*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs* are used when they represent the noun; as, "The book is *mine*," "The sleigh is *theirs*."

Mine and *thine* are sometimes used in the solemn style, and in poetry when the noun is expressed.

Ex.—Blot out all *mine* iniquity.—*Bible*. Thine azure brow.—*Byron*.

In parsing the words *mine*, *ours*, *thine*, etc., where they represent nouns, it is best to parse them as personal pronouns having the possessive form, and let the case be determined by their relation to other words. Thus, in the sentence, "Hers is a wretched life," *hers* is a personal pronoun having the possessive form; it is in the singular number, third person, feminine gender, and nominative case, being the subject of the sentence.

In a similar manner in the sentence, "I have my rose, but the boys have lost *theirs*," *theirs* is a personal pronoun having the possessive form; it is in the plural number, third person, masculine gender, and objective case, being the object of the transitive verb *have lost*.

Also, in the sentence, "This house is *ours*," *ours* is a personal pronoun having the possessive form; it is in the plural

number, first person, common gender, and nominative case, after the intransitive verb *is*.

The possessive case of pronouns should not be written with the apostrophe; thus, write *yours*, *ours*, *its*, *hers*, *theirs*, not *your's*, *our's*, *it's*, *her's*, *their's*.

The word *own* is often placed after the possessive form to make it more emphatic; as, "It is my *own* task I learn."

The pronoun *it* is often used indefinitely; as, "It rains," "It is late," "It is time to go." In such cases *it* may be parsed as an indefinite personal pronoun.

Compound Personal Pronouns.

The **Compound Personal Pronouns** are *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, and *itself*, in the singular, and *ourselves*, *yourselves*, and *themselves*, in the plural.

The nominative and the objective form are the same.

The compound personal pronouns have no possessive form.

The form *yourself*, instead of *thyself*, is commonly used when but one person is addressed.

Parsing of Personal Pronouns.

Models.

1. The bird that soars on highest wing
Builds on the ground her lonely nest.

FULL FORM.

Her is a pronoun, it is used instead of a noun; it is a personal pronoun, because it shows its person by its form; its antecedent is *bird*; it is therefore in the singular number, third person, feminine gender, to agree with its antecedent, and in the possessive case, limiting the noun *nest*.

2. He who has no respect for religion can have no true respect for himself.

CONDENSED FORM.

He is a personal pronoun ; it is in the singular number, third person, masculine gender, and nominative case, being the subject of the sentence.

Himself is a compound personal pronoun ; it is in the singular number, third person, masculine gender, and objective case, being the object of the preposition *for*.

3. Let him beware lest he deceive his own soul.

WRITTEN FORM.

Pronouns.	Kind.	Num.	Person.	Gen.	Case.	Government.
him,	personal,	sing.,	3d,	Mas.,	Obj., Nom., Pos.,	Object of <i>let.</i> <i>Subj.</i> of <i>deceive.</i> <i>limits soul.</i>
he,	"	"	"	"		
his,	"	"	"	"		

Exercise.

1. Parse the personal pronouns in the following sentences.
1. But I defy him. Let him come.—*Greene.*
2. Stand up erect ! Thou hast the form
And likeness of thy God.
3. How dark it is ! I cannot seem to see
The faces of my flock.
4. People seem to improve when they have no model but themselves to copy after.—*Goldsmith.*
5. What it is our duty to do we must do because it is right, not because any one can demand it of us.—*Whewell.*
6. He that has his own troubles and the happiness of his neighbors to disturb him has work enough.—*Jeremy Collier.*
7. When my eyes shall be turned to behold for the last time the sun in heaven, may I not see him shining on the broken and dis-honored fragments of a once glorious Union !—*Webster.*
8. The sea is His, and He made it.—*Bible.*
9. To him who, in the love of Nature, holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language.—*Bryant.*

10. Thou art gone to the grave, but 'twere wrong to deplore thee,
When God was thy ransom, thy guardian, thy guide.—*Heber.*
11. Mine be a cot beside the hill.—*Rogers.*
12. His is that language of the heart
In which the answering heart would speak.—*Halleck.*
2. *Parse also the nouns and the adjectives in the foregoing sentences.*

Relative Pronouns.

A **Relative Pronoun** is one which relates to a preceding word, phrase, or clause, called its antecedent, and unites with it a subordinate clause.

Ex.—The house *which* I sold has been torn down.

Relative Pronouns are of two kinds.—*Simple* and *Compound.*

Simple Relatives.

The *Simple Relatives* are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

Declension.

Singular and Plural.	Singular and Plural.
Nom. Who,	Which,
Poss. Whose,	Whose,
Obj. Whom.	Which.

Remarks on Relatives.

The relative agrees with its antecedent in number, person, and gender.

What and *that* have the same form in both the nominative and the objective.

Who is used to represent persons, *which* to represent inferior animals and things without life, *what* to represent things, and *that* to represent both persons and things.

As, when it follows *such*, *many*, or *same*, is by some grammarians parsed as a relative, as in the sentence, “They were *such as*

he had." Properly, there is an ellipsis in such expressions, the relative being omitted; as, "They were such as (were those which) he had."

As is a conjunction used as the correlative of *such*.

What, in many sentences, is equivalent to both the antecedent and the relative.

Ex.—1. I have what I want.

2. What was lost has been found.
3. This is what I bought.

In parsing such expressions it is best to say of the word *what* that it has a double construction, and then give the case. Thus, in *Ex.* 1 the transitive verb *have* requires an object, which is found in the word *what*; the transitive verb *want* requires an object, which also is found in the word *what*; therefore, *what* is a relative pronoun having a double construction. It is in the objective case after the transitive verb *have*, and in the objective case after the transitive verb *want*.

In *Ex.* 2, *what* is a relative pronoun having a double construction. It is in the nominative case as subject of *was lost*, and with "*was lost*" it is also in the nominative case as subject of *has been found*.

In *Ex.* 3, *what* is a relative pronoun having a double construction. It is in the nominative case after the intransitive verb *is*, and in the objective case after the transitive verb *bought*.

When *what* has a double construction, both cases may be the *nominative*; both the *objective*; or one the *nominative*, and the other the *objective*.

Compound Relatives.

The *Compound Relatives* are formed by annexing *ever* and *soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what*.

They are *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

Remarks.

The compound relatives are declined like the simple relatives from which they are derived, but the compounds of *which* and *what* have no possessive form.

The compound relatives have a double construction, and should be so parsed. Thus, in the sentence, "Take whichever is best," the transitive verb *take* requires an object, which is found in the word *whichever*, and the predicate verb requires a nominative, which also is found in the word *whichever*. *Whichever* is therefore a compound relative having a double construction. It is in the objective case after the transitive verb *take*, and in the nominative case, being the subject of *is best*.

When either of the relatives *which* and *what* is used to limit a noun, it is called a *pronominal adjective*.

- Ex.—** 1. What house was burned ?
- 2. Which book do you prefer ?

The compounds of *which* and *what* may be used as relatives and pronominal adjectives at the same time.

- Ex.—** 1. Read whichever book you prefer.
- 2. Whatever goods were left were sold.

Interrogative Pronouns.

Interrogative Pronouns are those pronouns which are used in asking questions.

The *Interrogatives* are *Who*, *Which*, and *What*.

They are declined like the simple relative pronouns.

Who is used in asking about persons ; as, "Who discovered America ?"

Which is used in asking about persons, animals, and things ; as, "Which of the *boys* has recited ?" "Which of the *horses* is yours ?" "Which of the *books* will you have ?"

What is used commonly to inquire about things; as, “What do you want?” “What does the wind say?”

In inquiring about persons, *who* asks for the name; as, “Who is that?” “Mr. Adams.” *Which* asks for the particular person meant; as, “Which Mr. Adams?” “Mr. John Adams.” *What* asks for the description; as, “What is he?” “A merchant.”

Remarks on Interrogative Pronouns.

Interrogative pronouns refer to *subsequents*, or words following, instead of antecedents; as, “Who was the first President of the United States?” “George Washington.”

When an interrogative pronoun is used in a responsive sense it may be called a *Responsive Pronoun* or an *Indefinite Interrogative Pronoun*; as in the following sentence: “Who called to me?” “I do not know *who* called to you.”

Exercise.

Name the pronouns, and tell the class of each, in the following sentences:

1. Errors, like straws, upon the surface float;
He who would seek for pearls must dive below.—*Dryden*.
2. The poorest education that teaches self-control is better than the best that neglects it.—*Sterling*.
3. Hail to the chief who in triumph advances!—*Scott*.
4. My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky;
So was it when my life began,
So is it now I am a man,
So be it when I shall grow old,
Or let me die.—*Wordsworth*.

Parsing.

Models.

1. Spirit that breathest through my lattice.—*Bryant*.

CONDENSED FORM

That is a simple relative pronoun. It agrees with its antecedent

spirit, in the singular number, third person, neuter gender. It is in the nominative case, being the subject of *breathest*.

2. What is dark in me illumine.—*Milton*.

What is a simple relative pronoun, and is equivalent to the antecedent and a relative. It is in the singular number, third person, neuter gender, and has a double construction, being in the objective case after the transitive verb *illumine*, and in the nominative case as subject of *is dark*.

3. What art thou?—*Milton*.

What is an interrogative pronoun. It is in the singular number, second person, common gender, and agrees with some noun understood as its subsequent. It is in the nominative case after the intransitive verb *art*.

4. It is not what people earn, but what they save, that makes them rich.

WRITTEN FORM.

Pronouns.	Kind.	Num.	Per.	Gen.	Case.	Government.
It,	Personal,	Sing.,	3d,	Neut.,	Nom.,	Subject of <i>is</i> .
what,	Relative,	"	"	"	{ Nom., Obj.,	{ after <i>is</i> , after <i>earn</i> .
what,	"	"	"	"	{ Nom., Obj.,	{ after <i>is</i> , un- derstood. after <i>save</i> .
they,	Personal,	Plur.,	"	Com.,	Nom.,	Sub. of <i>save</i> .
that,	Relative,	Sing.,	"	Neut.,	Nom.,	Sub. of <i>makes</i> .
them,	Personal,	Plur.,	"	Com.,	Obj.,	Obj. of <i>makes</i> .

Exercises.

1. Parse the pronouns in the following sentences:

1. What we learn in our youth grows up with us, and in time becomes a part of the mind itself.

2. There are men who always fail in whatever they undertake, simply because they are always behind time.—*Freeman Hunt*.

3. Grace is to the body what good sense is to the mind.—*Roche-forcauld*.

4. Every one hath a natural dread of everything that can endanger his happiness.—*Tillotson*.

5. He who every morning plans the transactions of the day, and follows out that plan, carries on a thread which will guide him through the labyrinth of the most busy life.—*Blair*.

6. My sword and yours are kin.—*Shakespeare*.

7. He that doth not know those things which are of use for him to know is but an ignorant man, whatever he may know besides.—*Tillotson*.

8. Ethics is the science of the laws which govern our actions as moral agents.—*Sir W. Hamilton*.

9. Most men know what they hate, few what they love.—*Colton*.

10. The troops entered the Alhambra, the gates of which were wide open, and all its splendid courts and halls silent and deserted.—*Iriey*.

11. To commemorate the talents, virtues, and exploits of great and good men is at all times a pleasing task to those who know how to esteem them.—*Hamilton*.

12. Life! I know not what thou art,
But know that thou and I must part;
And when, or how, or where we met,
I own to me's a secret yet.—*Mrs. Barbauld*.

13. They are poor
That have lost nothing; they are poorer far
Who, losing, have forgotten; they most poor
Of all, who lose and wish they might forget.—*Jean Ingelow*.

14. Knowledge is proud that he has learned so much;
Wisdom is humble that he knows no more.—*Couper*.

15. He jests at scars that never felt a wound.—*Shakespeare*.

16. Whoever thinks a faultless piece to see,
Thinks what ne'er was, nor is, nor e'er shall be.

17. O little hands, that, weak or strong,
Have still to serve or rule so long,
Have still so long to give or ask—
I, who so much with book and pen
Have toiled among my fellow-men,
Am weary, thinking of your task.—*Longfellow*.

2. Parse also the nouns and the adjectives in the foregoing sentences

Synopsis.

Pronouns	<i>Personal,</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Simple } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{I,} \\ \text{thou,} \\ \text{he, she, it.} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{Comp. } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Myself,} \\ \text{thyself,} \\ \text{herself, himself, itself.} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$
	<i>Relative,</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Simple } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Who,} \\ \text{which,} \\ \text{what,} \\ \text{that.} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{Comp. } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Whoever, whosoever,} \\ \text{whichever, whichever,} \\ \text{whatever, whatsoever.} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$
	<i>Interrogative,</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Who,} \\ \text{which,} \\ \text{what.} \end{array} \right.$
	<i>Properties,</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Number,} \\ \text{Person,} \\ \text{Gender,} \\ \text{Case.} \end{array} \right.$

VERBS.

A Verb is a word used to express action, being, or state.

Remark.—Some verbs express action; as, Henry *speaks*; some express being; as, I *am*; and others express state; as, The book *lies* on the table.

Note—The word *verb* is derived from the Latin *verbum*, the “word.”

The verb is the most important part of speech, be-

cause no collection of words can make complete sense without the use of some verb.

The noun or the pronoun denoting that about which the verb asserts or expresses some action, being, or state, is called the *Subject*. The subject may be either expressed or understood.

Exercise.

1. Name the verbs in the following sentences:

The news came yesterday. I can read. Begin to recite your lesson. Birds fly. Fishes swim. Fishes can swim. I have forgotten my book. The child reads well. It sleeps quiet. How hard he breathes! Who can throw the ball farthest? Which way will you come? Come into the room. Try to do your best. How long have you studied? I have broken my sled. The stars are shining brightly. See the lambs play in the field. Who tore the book? The leaves fall. The snow drifts. The rain patters on the roof.

2. Insert verbs to complete the following sentences:

1. John his hat.
2. Studious pupils rapidly.
3. The little bird merrily.
4. You diligently.
5. Fishes in the water.
6. Birds in the wood.
7. Henry over the river.
8. The book badly
9. My book new.
10. How much he?
11. The hunter a bird.
12. The cows over the hill.
13. George Washington President.
14. I my father yesterday.
15. I my letter.
16. We our lessons.
17. The girls
18. The moon at night.
19. The sun like a ball of fire.
20. Harvey himself with a knife.
21. We our lessons well.

Classes of Verbs.

Verbs, according to their use, are either *Transitive* or *Intransitive*.

A **Transitive Verb** is one which represents an action as passing from some object to another.

Examples.—John *struck* the desk. The desk *was struck* by John. The heat *burst* the goblet.

An **Intransitive Verb** is one which does not represent the action as passing from some object to another.

Examples.—The bird *flies*. The day *is* warm. The child *sleeps*.

Remarks on Verbs.

1. A transitive verb always expresses action, and this action is always such as, either literally or metaphorically, passes from one object to another.

2. Some intransitive verbs also express action, but the action expressed by an intransitive verb is not such as passes from one object to another.

3. A transitive verb receives or requires an objective to complete its meaning. Thus, “He makes _____,” is not complete until an objective is supplied; hence, *makes* is a transitive verb.

A transitive verb may usually be known by its making sense when *me*, *it*, *us*, or some other objective form of a pronoun, is placed after the verb as the object. Thus, “He strikes me” is complete in sense, and the verb *strikes* is transitive. But, “The sun shines it” does not make sense, and the verb *shines* is therefore intransitive.

4. The same verb may be transitive in one sense, and intransitive in another; as, “I *return* the book” (trans.), “I *return home*” (intrans.); “He *believes* the truth” (trans.), “He *believes in God*” (intrans.).

5. An intransitive verb may be used transitively when followed by a word of *similar meaning*; as, “I *dreamed a dream*,” “He *danced the dance of death*,” “She *lived a wretched life*.”

6. An intransitive verb may be used transitively when it has a *causative* meaning; as, “The boy *flies* his kite”—that is, he causes it to fly; “The jockey *trotted* the horse up and down the street.” Sentences of this kind, though not strictly elegant, are sanctioned by custom.

7. A **Neuter Verb** is an intransitive verb which does not express action; as, “The book *is mine*,” “It *lies* on the table.”

8. In such sentences as the following, "The pupil *writes* well," the sense is complete without an object, and the verb *writes* is intransitive. But in the sentence "The pupil *writes a word*," the object *word* completes the sentence, and the verb is properly transitive.

Exercise.

Name the verbs in the following sentences, and tell whether they are transitive or intransitive:

School has opened. We are here. Sarah lost her book. Winter has come. We can go home. We leave for Philadelphia to-morrow. We will return to the country. Return the book to me. The sun shines. The girl reads well. Read your lesson over. Write in your new copy-book. Write six sentences. I have written my letter. Whoever pursues pleasure will find pain. I have caught the mouse. The mouse was caught by me. The window was broken by a stone. Let us learn to sing. Sing a new song. I have a dollar.

Properties of Verbs.

Verbs have *Voice, Mode, Tense, Number, and Person.*

Voice.

Voice is that property of the transitive verb which shows whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

The *Active* voice represents the subject as acting; as, "The boy *caught* a bird." Here the subject *boy* is represented as acting.

The *Passive* voice represents the subject as acted upon, as in the sentence, "A bird *was caught* by the boy." The subject *bird* is here represented as receiving the action.

Remarks on Voice.

1. The active form is changed to the passive by making the object of the action the subject of the sentence; as, "I shot the bird" (*active*), "The bird was shot by me" (*passive*).

2. In the passive form the word denoting the actor is put in the objective case after a preposition.

Ex.—“The book was bought *by James*.”

Here James is in the objective case after the preposition *by*.

3. Intransitive verbs have no passive voice, because the action expressed by the verb is never exerted upon any object. They usually have the form of the active voice.

4. Intransitive verbs when followed by a preposition may have the form of the passive voice.

Ex.—1. The cars *were anxiously looked for* (expected).

2. You *will be laughed at* (ridiculed).

In such sentences the verb should be parsed as a complex verb.

5. In a few sentences like the following, “We *suffered* at the hands of the enemy,” the subject is represented as receiving the action, and yet has the active form. This does not contradict the definition, but it results rather from the particular meaning of the verb.

6. Intransitive verbs of motion sometimes have the *passive form*, though in the *active voice*. The meaning, however, is unchanged, and the subject remains in the nominative case.

Ex.—1. He *is come*.

2. The melancholy days *are come*.

3. He *is fallen*.

These are equivalent to *has come*, *have come*, and *has fallen*. In each case it is best to call the verb an intransitive verb having the *passive form*, etc.

7. A few transitive verbs have the *active form* with a *passive signification*.

Ex.—1. The field *ploughs well*.

2. The goods *sell readily*.

3. Some wood *warps badly*.

In parsing these verbs it is best to call them intransitive verbs, passive in meaning, but having the active form.

Exercise.

Name the verbs in the following sentences, tell whether transitive or intransitive, and give the voice:

Who killed the squirrel? My book is torn. Read none but good books. Set a good example. I have driven two miles this morning. We walked to school rapidly. The knife was bought for a dollar. Fly the kite to-morrow. I have been running. Let us run a race. The wrong-doer will be punished. Let us return at once. Give us some work to do. Ignorance is not bliss. The fox was caught by the hound. My dog caught a rabbit. The lesson which we learned was not difficult. We believe in God. Do you believe the statement?

Mode.

Mode is the manner in which an assertion is expressed. Verbs have five modes—the *Indicative*, the *Potential*, the *Subjunctive*, the *Imperative*, and the *Infinitive*.

The **Indicative** Mode is used to express a direct assertion or a question.

Ex.—Mary studies. Does Mary study?

The **Potential** Mode is used to express possibility, liberty, necessity, or duty.

Ex.—I can read. You may come. He must study.

The signs of the potential mode are *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*.

The potential mode may be used in asking a question; as, May I go? Can you teach?

The **Subjunctive** Mode is used to express an assertion as doubtful or conditional.

Ex.—1. If he *be* studious, he will improve.

2. Oh that he *were* here!

3. If he *were* attentive, he would hear.

The signs of the subjunctive mode are *if, though, lest, except, unless, provided*, etc.

A verb in the subjunctive is usually preceded by one of the foregoing conjunctions.

The **Imperative Mode** is used to express a command, an entreaty, a permission, or an exhortation.

- Ex.**—1. Charge upon the guns!
2. Listen to my statement.
3. Depart in peace.

The subject of the verb in the imperative mode is *thou* or *you*, understood.

The **Infinitive Mode** is used to express an action without asserting or affirming it.

- Ex.**—To sing. To exercise is to invigorate our health.

The infinitive is not limited to a subject. It therefore has neither person nor number.

Remarks on Mode.

1. The *Subjunctive* mode is so called because it is used in subjoined or subordinate propositions only.

2. The *sign of the subjunctive* is often omitted; as, "Were I the teacher, I would dismiss him"—that is, "*If I were*," etc.

3. When a verb is limited to a subject it is said to be *finite*.

Finite verbs are found in all the modes except the infinitive.

4. A verb in the infinitive mode is usually known by the sign *to* prefixed.

5. After the active voice of the verbs *bid* (to command), *dare* (to venture), *let, see, feel, hear*, and a few others, the sign *to* is usually omitted; as in the sentence, "Let him go."

6. The infinitive depends upon the word which it limits or completes in meaning.

It is often equivalent to a verbal noun, and is then in either

the nominative or the objective case, but it is limited as a verb.

Exercise.

Name the verbs in the following, and give the class, the voice, and the mode of each:

Shall we come? I hope you may improve. Try to do your duty. Temperance and exercise promote health. Run for your life. If we persevere we shall succeed. Were I to tell you all, you would be astonished. Can you read? It is not known that he would come if he were invited. Pupils should be attentive in the class-room. Make hay while the sun shines. Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth.

Lie not down wearied 'neath Woe's weeping willow!
Work with a stout heart and resolute will.—*Mrs. Osgood.*

The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,
Had he thy reason, would he skip and play?—*Pope.*

Tense.

Tense denotes the time of an action or event.

There are three divisions of Time—the *Present*, the *Past*, and the *Future*. Each division has two tenses, hence there are six tenses, three *absolute* and three *relative*.

The *Absolute* tenses are called respectively, *present*, *past*, and *future*.

The *Relative* tenses, which denote completed action, are called respectively, *present perfect*, *past perfect*, and *future perfect*.

The *Indicative Mode* is the only one which has six tenses, and in which the tenses indicate time accurately.

The **Present Tense** denotes present time; as, "John *sings*," "We *are reciting*."

1. The present tense may express a general truth; as, "Heat expands metals," "Exercise strengthens."

2. It may express a present habit or custom ; as, "We recite daily," "The girl is studious."

3. It may also represent the past or the future as present ; as, "Cæsar crosses the Rubicon and enters Rome in triumph," "I see the new century as it comes upon us."

The **Past** Tense denotes past time ; as, "John sang," "We were reciting."

The past tense also expresses what was customary ; as, "They attended strictly to business."

The **Future** Tense denotes future time ; as, "We shall go," "I will tell you."

The signs of the future tense in the Indicative mode are *shall* and *will*.

In *promises*, *will* is used in the first person, and *shall* in the second and the third ; as, "We *will* help you," "He *shall* help us."

To denote *futurity*, *shall* is generally used in the first person, and *will* in the second and the third ; as, "I *shall* be there," "Will he come?"

The **Present Perfect** Tense denotes an action or event as completed or past, but connected with the present time ; as, "I have recited to-day."

The sign of the present perfect tense in the Indicative is *have*.

The **Past Perfect** Tense denotes an act as completed before some past time ; as, "They had gone before we came."

The sign of the past perfect tense in the Indicative is *had*.

The Future Perfect Tense denotes an act as completed before some future time; as, "The snow will have melted before spring comes."

The sign of the future perfect tense in the Indicative is *shall have* or *will have*.

Remarks on Tense.

1. The *Indicative* mode has six tenses, named, respectively, *present*, *past*, *future*, *present perfect*, *past perfect*, and *future perfect*.

2. The *Potential* mode has four tenses, named, respectively, *present*, *past*, *present perfect*, and *past perfect*.

3. The signs of the tenses in the Potential mode are as follows:

Present, may, can, must.

Past, might, could, would, should.

Present Perfect, may have, can have, must have.

Past Perfect, might have, could have, would have, should have.

4. The *Subjunctive* mode has two tenses, the *present* and the *past*.

5. The *Imperative* mode has but one tense, the *present*.

6. The *Infinitive* mode has two tenses, the *present* and the *present perfect*.

Number and Person.

Number and Person of verbs are changes of form which they undergo to correspond or agree with their subjects.

Verbs have, therefore, two numbers—the *Singular* and the *Plural*; and three persons—the *First*, the *Second*, and the *Third*.

A verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

The first person singular of the verb always has the

same form as the plurals, except in the verb *to be*. Thus, I *sing*, We *sing*, You *sing*, They *sing*.

Unipersonal Verbs.

A **Unipersonal Verb** is one that has but one person ; as, "It *rains*," "*methinks*."

Methinks and *methought* are equivalent to "I think," "I thought." Both are used in the first person.

Would, meaning *wish*, is always used in the first person ; as, "Would that he might come!"—that is, "I wish that he might come."

A verb having for its subject the personal pronoun *it* used indefinitely—as, "It *rains*," "It *blows*," "It *seems*," etc.—is in the third person, singular.

Participles.

A **Participle** is a word which partakes of the nature of both a verb and an adjective.

Note.—The word *participle* is derived from the Latin *particeps*, partaker of, or sharing.

A participle has the nature of a verb, because it expresses *action*, *being*, or *state*; it also implies *time*.

It has the nature of an adjective, because it may limit or describe a noun or a pronoun.

There are three participles—the *Present*, the *Perfect*, and the *Preperfect*.

The **Present Participle** denotes what is now in progress or unfinished ; as, *singing*, *playing*, *stealing*, *being*, *sleeping*.

The present participle always ends in *-ing*.

The **Perfect Participle** denotes that which is completed or finished ; as, *sung, played, stolen*.

The **Preperfect Participle** denotes that which was completed before the time represented by the principal verb ; as, *having sung, having played, having been, having slept* ; *Having recited, we left the room.*

The preperfect participle is formed by placing *having* before the perfect participle to form the active voice, and *having been* to form the passive voice.

Remarks on Participles.

1. The perfect participle of a regular verb always has the same form as the past tense.

2. The perfect participle is used in making the complex form of verbs ; as, *have loved, had loved, shall have loved, am loved, was loved, etc.*

3. The *time implied by a participle* is the same as that asserted by the principal verb ; as,

He *labors, loved* (pres.) by all.

He *labored, loved* (past) by all.

He *will labor, loved* (future) by all.

4. When the participle is placed before the noun to describe, it is called a *participial adjective* ; as in the sentence, “He saw books in the *running brooks*.”

5. When the participle follows the noun it is parsed as a participle, governed by the noun which it completes in meaning ; as in the sentence, “The horse, *running, fell*.”

6. When a participle is used as a name, it is called a participial noun ; as in the sentence, “*Reading good books maketh a man better*.”

7. The participle sometimes becomes a noun simply ; as in the sentence, “*Hunting and fishing were his amusements*.”

Exercise.

Name the participles in the following sentences, giving the class of each, also the participial adjectives and the participial nouns:

1. Distilled books are, like common distilled waters, flashy things.
2. Writing maketh an exact man.
3. Bowling is good for the back ; and shooting, for the lungs.
4. The palaces of crowned kings were burnt for beacons.
5. The wild birds shrieked, and, terrified, did flutter on the ground.
6. The mingling notes came softened from below.
7. All bloodless lay the untrodden snow,
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iser, rolling rapidly.
8. 'Tis the last rose of summer,
Left blooming alone ;
All her lovely companions
Are faded and gone.
9. " "Tis some visitor," I muttered, " tapping at my chamber-door."
10. Our work having been done, we started for our home.
11. The child, running rapidly down the hill, fell and struck its arm against a projecting root.
12. The team came rattling along.
13. She sat near, reading.
14. The engine, having been oiled, runs well.
15. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.

Regular and Irregular Verbs.

According to their form, verbs are either *Regular* or *Irregular*.

A **Regular Verb** is one whose past tense in the Indicative and whose perfect participle are formed by annexing *-ed* to the present tense ; as, *pres.*, live ; *past*, lived ; *perf. participle*, lived.

ETYMOLOGY—VERBS.

An **Irregular Verb** is one whose past tense in the indicative, or whose perfect participle, or both, are formed by annexing *-ed* to the present tense; as, *pres.*, sing; *past*, sang; *perf. participle*, sung.

The Principal Parts of Verbs.

The *Present Tense*, indicative mode, the *Past Tense*, indicative mode, and the *Perfect Participle*, are called the *Principal Parts* of a verb, because, in addition to being parts of the verb, they assist in forming all the other parts.

Principal Parts of Irregular Verbs.

Note 1.—Those marked R have also the regular ending *-ed*.

Note 2.—When a verb has two forms, the preferable form is placed first in the following table.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, R.	awaked.
Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>),	bore, bare,	born.
Bear (<i>to carry</i>),	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten, beat.
Become,	became,	become.
Befall,	befell,	befallen.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bid, bidden.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built, R.	built, R.
Burn,	burned, burnt,	burned, burnt.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Catch,	caught, R.	caught, R.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Chide,	chid,	chid, chidden.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave (<i>to split</i>),	cleft, clove,	cleft, cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed, clad,	clothed, clad.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Crow,	crew, R.	crowed.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Dare (<i>to venture</i>),	dared, durst,	dared.
Deal,	dealt, R.	dealt, R.
Dig,	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Dream,	dreamed, drearat,	dreamed, dreamt.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat,	ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.
Forget,	forgot,	forgot, forgotten.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got,	got, gotten.
Gild,	gilded, gilt,	gilded, gilt.
Gird,	girded, girt,	girded, girt.
Give,	gave,	given.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graved, graven.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Hang,*	hung,	hung.
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Heave,	heaved, hove,	heaved.
Hew,	hewed,	hewed, hewn.
Hide,	hid,	hid, hidden.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hold,	held,	held.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Kneel,	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Knit,	knit, R.	knit, R.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laded, laden.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Lie (<i>to recline</i>),	lay,	lain.
Light,	lighted, lit,	lighted, lit.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meant.
Meet,	met,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	mowed, mown.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Put,	put,	put.
Quit,	quitted, quit,	quitted, quit.
Rap (<i>to seize</i>),	rapped, rapt,	rapped, rapt.
Read,	read,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	rid.

* Hang, hanged, hanged, meaning to suspend by the neck with intent to kill.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Ride,	rode,	ridden.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riven.
Run,	ran,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawed, sawn.
Say,	said,	said.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Seethe,	seethed,	seethed, sodden.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,	set,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped, shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaved, shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	sheared, shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone, R.	shone, R.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Show,	showed,	shown, showed.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shrink,	shrank,	shrunk, shrunken.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sing,	sang, sung,	sung.
Sink,	sank, sunk,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	slid, slidden.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Slit,	slit,	slit.
Smell,	smelled, smelt,	smelled, smelt.
Smite,	smote,	smitten, smit.
Sow,	sowed,	sown, sowed.
Speak,	spoke, spake,	spoken.
Speed,	sped, R.	sped, R.
Spell,	spelled, spelt,	spelled, spelt.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Spit,	spit, spat,	spit.
Split,	split,	split.
Spoil,	spoiled, spoilt,	spoiled, spoilt.
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Spring,	sprang, sprung,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Stave,	stove, R.	stove, R.
Stay,	staid, R.	staid, R.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Strew,	strewed,	strewed, strewn
Stride,	strode, strid,	stridden, strid.
Strike,	struck,	struck.
String,	strung,	strung.
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Sweat,	sweated, sweat,	sweated, sweat.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Swell,	swelled,	swelled, swollen.
Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	thrived,	thrived, thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	trod, trodden.
Wake,	waked, woke,	waked.
Wax,	waxed,	waxed, waxen.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove, R.	woven, R.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Wet,	wet, R.	wet, R.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound.
Work,	worked, wrought,	worked, wrought.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	written.

Auxiliary Verbs.

An **Auxiliary Verb** is one which is used in forming the modes and the tenses of other verbs.

The auxiliary verbs are *do*, *be*, *have*, *will*, *shall*, *may*, *can*, *must*, and sometimes *need*.

Remarks on Auxiliaries.

1. The word *auxiliary* means aiding or helping. These verbs are called auxiliary verbs because they help to form the parts of other verbs.
2. *Do*, *be*, *have*, *need*, and *will* are also principal verbs when used alone.
3. *Do*, *have*, *will*, *shall*, *may*, and *can*, as auxiliaries, are used in two tenses, the *present* and the *past*.
4. *Be* is used as an auxiliary in all the modes and tenses in forming the passive voice.
5. *Must* and *need* are used in the present tense only.

Defective Verbs.

A **Defective Verb** is one in which some of the principal parts are wanting.

Of the defective verbs, *may*, *can*, *shall*, and *will* have no participles.

Must is used only in the present tense.

Quoth is used only in the past tense. It is equivalent to *said*; as, "Quoth the raven, Nevermore."

Beware, from *be* and *aware*, is used in the present tense, and mostly in the imperative mode.

Ought is used in both the present and the past tense.

Wit, in the sense of *know*, is used in the present infinitive; as, “*To wit*, namely.”

Most of the other defective verbs are obsolete.

Conjugation.

The *Conjugation* of a verb is a regular arrangement of its *modes*, *tenses*, *voices*, *numbers*, and *persons*.

Conjugation of the Verb “To Be.”

Principal Parts.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>
Be,	Was,	Been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am,
2. Thou art,
3. He is;

Plural.

1. We are,
2. You are,
3. They are.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was,
2. Thou wast,
3. He was;

1. We were,
2. You were,
3. They were.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. Simple futurity, foretelling.

1. I shall be,
2. Thou wilt be,
3. He will be;

1. We shall be,
2. You will be,
3. They will be.

2. Promise, threat, or determination.

1. I will be,
2. Thou shalt be,
3. He shall be;

1. We will be,
2. You shall be,
3. They shall be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have been,
2. Thou hast been,
3. He has been;

Plural.

1. We have been,
2. You have been,
3. They have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had been,
2. Thou hadst been,
3. He had been;

1. We had been,
2. You had been,
3. They had been.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Simple futurity, foretelling.

1. I shall have been,
2. Thou wilt have been,
3. He will have been;

1. We shall have been,
2. You will have been,
3. They will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I may be,
2. Thou mayst be,
3. He may be;

1. We may be,
2. You may be,
3. They may be.

PAST TENSE.

1. I might be,
2. Thou mightst be,
3. He might be;

1. We might be,
2. You might be,
3. They might be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been,
3. He may have been;

1. We may have been,
2. You may have been,
3. They may have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,
3. He might have been;

1. We might have been,
2. You might have been,
3. They might have been.

Note.—The auxiliaries used in the *Present* and the *Present Perfect*, Potential Mode, are *may*, *can*, and *must*; and those used in the *Past* and the *Past Perfect* are *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I be,
2. If thou be,
3. If he be;

Plural.

1. If we be,
2. If you be,
3. If they be.

PAST TENSE.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. If I were, or Were I, | 1. If we were, or Were we, |
| 2. If thou wert, or Wert thou, | 2. If you were, or Were you, |
| 3. If he were, or Were he; | 3. If they were, or Were they. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Be, Be thou, or Do thou be; Be, Be you, or Do you be.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be.

Present Perfect, To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being.

Perfect, Been.

Preperfect, Having been.

Conjugation of the Verb “To Teach.”

Principal Parts.

Present, Teach.

Past, Taught.

Perfect Participle, Taught.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I teach,
2. Thou teachest,
3. He teaches;

Plural.

1. We teach,
2. You teach,
3. They teach.

PAST TENSE.

1. I taught,
2. Thou taughtst,
3. He taught;

1. We taught,
2. You taught,
3. They taught.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. *Simple futurity, foretelling.**Singular.*

1. I shall teach,
2. Thou wilt teach,
3. He will teach;

Plural.

1. We shall teach,
2. You will teach,
3. They will teach.

2. *Promise, threat, or determination.*

1. I will teach,
2. Thou shalt teach,
3. He shall teach;

1. We will teach,
2. You shall teach,
3. They shall teach.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have taught,
2. Thou hast taught,
3. He has taught;

1. We have taught,
2. You have taught,
3. They have taught.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had taught,
2. Thou hadst taught,
3. He had taught;

1. We had taught,
2. You had taught,
3. They had taught.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Simple futurity, foretelling.

1. I shall have taught,
2. Thou wilt have taught,
3. He will have taught;

1. We shall have taught,
2. You will have taught,
3. They will have taught

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I may teach,
2. Thou mayst teach,
3. He may teach;

1. We may teach,
2. You may teach,
3. They may teach.

PAST TENSE.

1. I might teach,
2. Thou mightst teach,
3. He might teach;

1. We might teach,
2. You might teach,
3. They might teach.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may have taught,
2. Thou mayst have taught,
3. He may have taught;

Plural.

1. We may have taught,
2. You may have taught,
3. They may have taught.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I might have taught,
 2. Thou mightst have taught,
 3. He might have taught;
1. We might have taught,
 2. You might have taught,
 3. They might have taught.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. If I teach, | 1. If we teach, |
| 2. If thou teach, | 2. If you teach, |
| 3. If he teach; | 3. If they teach. |

PAST TENSE.

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. If I taught, | 1. If we taught, |
| 2. If thou taught, | 2. If you taught, |
| 3. If he taught; | 3. If they taught. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Teach, or Do thou teach; Teach, or Do you teach.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To teach.

Present Perfect, To have taught.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Teaching. *Perfect*, Taught. *Preperfect*, Having taught.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Synopsis.

Note.—A Synopsis is such an arrangement of parts as gives a general view of the whole.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present, . . . I am taught.*Past*, . . . I was taught.*Future*, . . . I shall be, or will be taught.*Present Perfect*, I have been taught.*Past Perfect*, . I had been taught.*Future Perfect*, . I shall have been, or will have been taught.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present, I may be taught. *Present Perfect*, I may have been taught.*Past*, I might be taught. *Past Perfect*, I might have been taught.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present, If I be taught.*Past*, If I were taught.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present, Be taught.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be taught. *Present Perfect*, To have been taught.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being taught. *Perfect*, Taught. *Preperfect*, Having been taught.

Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am taught,
2. Thou art taught,
3. He is taught;

Plural.

1. We are taught,
2. You are taught,
3. They are taught.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was taught,
2. Thou wast taught,
3. He was taught;

1. We were taught,
2. You were taught,
3. They were taught.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. *Simple futurity, foretelling.**Singular.*

1. I shall be taught,
2. Thou wilt be taught,
3. He will be taught;

Plural.

1. We shall be taught,
2. You will be taught,
3. They will be taught.

2. *Promise, threat, or determination.*

1. I will be taught,
2. Thou shalt be taught,
3. He shall be taught;

1. We will be taught,
2. You shall be taught,
3. They shall be taught.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have been taught,
2. Thou hast been taught,
3. He has been taught;

1. We have been taught,
2. You have been taught,
3. They have been taught.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had been taught,
2. Thou hadst been taught,
3. He had been taught;

1. We had been taught,
2. You had been taught,
3. They had been taught.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Simple futurity, foretelling.

1. I shall have been taught,
2. Thou wilt have been taught,
3. He will have been taught;

1. We shall have been taught,
2. You will have been taught,
3. They will have been taught.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I may be taught,
2. Thou mayst be taught,
3. He may be taught;

1. We may be taught,
2. You may be taught,
3. They may be taught

PAST TENSE.

1. I might be taught,
2. Thou mightst be taught,
3. He might be taught;

1. We might be taught,
2. You might be taught,
3. They might be taught

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been taught, | 1. We may have been taught, |
| 2. Thou mayst have been taught, | 2. You may have been taught, |
| 3. He may have been taught; | 3. They may have been taught. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been taught, | 1. We might have been taught, |
| 2. Thou mightst have been taught, | 2. You might have been taught, |
| 3. He might have been taught; | 3. They might have been taught. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. If I be taught, | 1. If we be taught, |
| 2. If thou be taught, | 2. If you be taught, |
| 3. If he be taught; | 3. If they be taught. |

PAST TENSE.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. If I were taught, | 1. If we were taught, |
| 2. If thou wert taught, | 2. If you were taught, |
| 3. If he were taught; | 3. If they were taught. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 2. Be taught, or be thou taught; | 2. Be taught, or be you taught. |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be taught. *Present Perfect*, To have been taught.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being taught. *Perfect*, Taught. *Preperfect*, Having been taught.

Exercises.

1. Name the mode, tense, number, and person, of each of the following verbs:

Write. Shall I write? I can write. He is writing now. Go. Let us go. We have been reading. Come to class. Thou art the only true God. If I go. Were I to go. Come to see us. To be seen. To have been. Columbus discovered America. May we listen to the music? Be this our motto. Sing. Let him be praised. Strive to excel.

2. Write a synopsis of each of the following verbs, giving the first person singular in both the active and the passive voice:

Praise, strike, rule, see, hear, take, punish.

3. Conjugate the following verbs in the active voice.

Lay, lie (to recline), do, come, go, wring, think, blow, fly, flee, sit, set, drink, get, know.

The Progressive Form.

The *Progressive Form* of the verb represents the act as continuing.

Synopsis of the Verb TO SEE in the Progressive Form.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present, I am seeing. *Present Perfect*, I have been seeing.

Past, I was seeing. *Past Perfect*, I had been seeing.

Future, I shall be seeing. *Future Perfect*, I shall have been seeing.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present, I may be seeing. *Present Perfect*, I may have been seeing.

Past, I might be seeing. *Past Perfect*, I might have been seeing.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present, If I be seeing. *Past*, If I were seeing.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present, Be seeing.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be seeing. *Present Perfect*, To have been seeing.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres., Being seeing. *Perf.*, —. *Preperfect*, Having been seeing.

Emphatic Form.

The *Emphatic Form* is used to express an assertion with emphasis.

The auxiliaries *do* and *did* are employed to produce this form ; as, "I do sing," "I did sing."

The emphatic form is used only in the *Present* and the *Past* tense of the Indicative, and in the tenses of the Subjunctive and the Imperative.

Interrogative Form.

The *Interrogative Form* is that which is used in asking questions ; as, "Did he go?" "May I go?"

It is used only in the Indicative and the Potential Mode.

Negative Form.

The *Negative Form* is that which is used to express denial or negation ; as, "He did not go," "They might not have done so."

This form may be used in any of the modes or tenses.

Remarks on Conjugation.

1. The verb in the subjunctive mode does not change its form in the different persons. Thus, If I *be*, If thou *be*, If he *be*, If we *be*, If you *be*, If they *be*, retain the same form of the verb throughout. But in the *indicative*, with the use of the conjunction, the form changes ; as, "If I *am*," "If thou *art*," "If he *is*," "If we *are*," "If you *are*," "If they *are*."

2. Where there is no doubt or future contingency to be expressed, the indicative form of the verb should be used ; as, "Though he is rude, yet he is kind."

3. When *were* means *would be*, as, "It were vain to contend against trifles," it should be parsed according to its form in the subjunctive mode.

4. The negative form is often contracted by the omission of *o* in *not*. Thus, *do not* becomes *don't*; *does not*, *doesn't*; *is not*, *isn't*; *are not*, *aren't*; *am not*, *a'n't*, etc. These contractions are rarely used in dignified discourse. When they occur in pars-

ing, as in the expression, "He can't come," it is best to parse "can come" as a verb, and the word "not" as an adverb.

5. It is not correct to use *don't* in the third person singular, since it is not correct to use the full form *do not* in this connection. The contraction *doesn't* is in the third person singular.

6. *A'n't* is correctly used only where *am not* can be substituted, in the first person singular, but even here it is better to say *I'm not* rather than *I a'n't*. By some the form *an't* is used, but incorrectly so, as the apostrophe should take the place of the omitted *m*. The forms *aint* and *ain't* are vulgarisms which are not admissible.

7. The *progressive form* is usually restricted to the active voice. Some writers, however, use it in the *Present* and the *Past* tense of the indicative, in the passive voice; as, "The class is now being examined," or, "The house was being constructed." These forms, though argued against by many grammarians, are nevertheless used by good writers.

Exercise.

Name the principal parts, also the form, mode, tense, person, and number, of the following verbs:

Learn to compose. Write with care. I have learned to sing. We should be industrious. Shall we do the work? How many have you seen? May you always prosper! I should be very much displeased if you did not come. I think he will be elected. We hope to see you to-day. Charge upon the fort! Forward, march! Lay the book on the table. Let it lie there. The sun sets in the west. Write me a long letter. I shall be glad to hear from you.

Go where glory waits thee,
But, while fame elates thee,
Oh still remember me.—*Moore.*

Parsing.

Models.

1. *The lightning killed the oak.*

FULL FORM.

Killed is a verb, it implies action;

Transitive, the action passes to an object;

Regular, it forms its past tense and its perfect participle by the addition of *ed*;

Active Voice, the subject is represented as acting;

Indicative Mode, it is a direct assertion;

Past tense, it denotes past time;

It agrees with its subject, *lightning*, in the singular number, third person.

2. The book was found on the desk.

CONDENSED FORM.

Was found is an irregular transitive verb; it is in the passive voice, indicative mode, past tense, and agrees with its subject, *book* in the singular number, third person.

3. The teacher having come, we may now study our lessons.

Having come is a preperfect participle; it is derived from the intransitive verb *to come*, and is governed by the noun *teacher*, on which it depends.

May study is a regular transitive verb; it is in the active voice, potential mode, present tense, and agrees with its subject, *we*, in the first person, plural number.

4. We learn much by teaching.

5. Learning to sing is sometimes a difficult task.

6. Strive to do your duty, and you will be rewarded.

WRITTEN FORM.

Verbs.	Class.	Form.	Voice.	Mode.	Tense.	Num.	Per.	Agrees with.
Learn,	Trans.,	Reg.,	Act.,	Indic.,	Pres.,	Plur.,	1st,	<i>We.</i>
to sing,	Intrans.,	Irreg.,	Infin.,	" {	Depends upon <i>learning.</i>
is,	"	"	Indic.,	"	Sing.,	3d,	<i>Learning.</i>
Strive,	"	"	Imper.,	"	Plur.,	2d,	<i>You.</i>
to do,	Trans.,	"	Act.,	Infin.,	" {	Depends upon <i>strive.</i>
will be rewarded,	}"	"	Reg.,	Pass.,	Indic.,	Fut.,	2d,	<i>You.</i>

Models for Participles.

Sentence 4. **Teaching** is a participial noun, in the singular number, third person, neuter gender. It is in the objective case, being the object of the preposition *by*.

Sentence 5. **Learning** is a participle used as a noun. It is in the singular number, third person, neuter gender, and nominative case, being used as the subject of the sentence.

Exercises.

Parse the verbs and the participles in the following sentences:

1. My lord, you know I love you.—*Shakespeare*.
2. The nightingale sings most sweetly when it sings in the night.—*Burke*.
3. The wages of sin is death.—*Bible*.
4. Nature does nothing in vain.—*Addison*.
5. It is said that many an unlucky young urchin is induced to run away from his family, and betake himself to a seafaring life, from reading the history of Robinson Crusoe.—*Irving*.
6. The best part of our knowledge is that which teaches us where knowledge leaves off and ignorance begins.—*Holmes*.
7. God helps them that help themselves.—*Franklin*.
8. It is excellent discipline for an author to feel that he must say all he has to say in the fewest possible words.—*Ruskin*.
9. God's livery is a very plain one, but its wearers have good reason to be content.—*Lowell*.
10. Civility costs nothing, and buys everything.—*Mary Wortley Montagu*.
11. As we proceeded, the timid approach of twilight became more perceptible.—*Everett*.
12. The aim of education is to show our youth the broad line of demarcation between the value of those things which can be owned by but one, and those which can be owned and enjoyed by all.—*Horace Mann*.
13. The mistletoe hung on the castle-hall,
The holly branch shone on the old oak wall,
And the baron's retainers were blithe and gay,
And keeping their Christmas holiday.—*T. H. Bayley*.

14. The old mayor climbed the belfry tower,
 The ringers ran by two, by three,
 “Pull! if ye never pulled before;
 Good ringers, pull your best,” quoth he.—*Ingelow.*
15. Be still, and gaze thou on, false king!
 And tell me what is this.—*Mrs. Hemans.*

Parse also the nouns, the pronouns, and the adjectives.

Synopsis.

Verb	<i>Transitive,</i> <i>Intransitive,</i> <i>Neuter.</i>	Properties	Voice, Mode,	<i>Active,</i> <i>Passive.</i> <i>Indicative,</i> <i>Potential,</i> <i>Subjunctive,</i> <i>Imperative,</i> <i>Infinitive.</i>
	SUB-CLASSES. <i>Defective,</i> <i>Unipersonal,</i> <i>Regular,</i> <i>Irregular,</i> <i>Auxiliary.</i>	Tense, Number, Person.	Tense,	<i>Present,</i> <i>Past,</i> <i>Future,</i> <i>Present Perfect,</i> <i>Past Perfect,</i> <i>Future Perfect.</i>
	Participles	Present, Perfect, Preperfect.		

ADVERBS.

An **Adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, a participle, or an adverb.

- Ex.**—1. The bird flies *swiftly*.
 2. The house is *very* large.
 3. The *smoothly-cut* edges shone.
 4. You read too *rapidly*.

Remark.—An adverb may modify a phrase.

Ex.—1. The balloon hovered immediately *over the city*.

2. He shot directly *at the mark*.

In the first sentence *immediately* modifies the phrase *over the city*, and in the second *directly* modifies *at the mark*.

An adverb may modify a preposition and its object, used as an adverbial element or phrase, but never a preposition alone, unless the latter is used as an adverb.

Classes.

Adverbs are of five general classes, named as follows: Adverbs of *Time*, of *Place*, of *Degree*, of *Cause*, of *Manner*.

Adverbs of *Time* answer the questions *When?* *How long?* *How often?*

Ex.—*Now, when, then, often, immediately, always, frequently, to-day, to-morrow, yesterday, ever, never, sometimes, lately, early, again, forever, soon, hitherto, seldom, rarely, hereafter, ago.*

Adverbs of *Place* answer the questions *Where?* *Whither?* *Whence?*

Ex.—*Here, there, where, herein, therein, hither, whither, thither, hence, thence, whence, above, below, up, down, forward, backward, back, forth, somewhere, nowhere, upward, downward, away, aside, aloof, aloft.*

Adverbs of *Degree* answer the questions *How much?* *How little?*

Ex.—*Much, more, most, almost, little, less, least, mostly, nearly, wholly, totally, too, entirely, altogether, quite, exceedingly, equally, so, as, enough, somewhat, hardly, greatly, how, alike, largely, none.*

Adverbs of *Cause* answer the questions *Why?* *Wherefore?*

Ex.—*Why, wherefore, therefore, then.*

Adverbs of *Manner* answer the question *How?*

Ex.—*Thus, so, how, somehow, else, like, well, ill, otherwise, wisely, quickly, nobly, feebly,* and many others formed by adding *ly* to adjectives.

Adverbs used in asking questions, as, *How, why, when, where, etc.,* may be called *Interrogative Adverbs.*

Conjunctive Adverbs.

Conjunctive Adverbs are those used to connect propositions and modify verbs in each; as, “We shall return home *when* the train leaves,” “Go *where* glory waits thee,” “He swims *like* a fish,” “He studies *while* we play.”

Remark.—In each of the foregoing examples the adverb connects the two clauses and modifies the verb in each clause.

Comparison.

Such adverbs as admit of comparison are compared in the same manner as adjectives.

Soon, fast, often, and a few other adverbs are compared by annexing *-er* and *-est*; as, *soon, sooner, soonest.*

Most adverbs are compared by prefixing *more* and *most*; as, *brightly, more brightly, most brightly.*

The following are compared irregularly:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Ill or badly,	worse,	worst.
Far,	farther,	farthest.
Forth,	further,	furthest.
Little,	less,	least.
Much,	more,	most.
Well,	better,	best.

Remarks on Adverbs.

1. Adverbs express briefly what would require a greater number of words. Thus, *quietly* = in a quiet manner; *now* = at this time; *there* = in that place; *very* = in a great degree.

2. Some phrases are used as adverbs; as, *in vain*, *at length*, *at once*, *of course*, *in short*, *at most*, and a few others. These, when they cannot be separated, may be parsed as *adverbial phrases*. Each of these phrases is usually equivalent to a single word; as, *vainly*, *finally*, *immediately*, etc.

3. Adverbs consisting of two or more words not united may be parsed as *Complex Adverbs*; as, *upside down*, *by and by*, *now and then*, etc.

4. Adverbs consisting of two or more words united may be parsed as *Compound Adverbs*; as, *whereby*, *somewhat*, *topsy-turvy*, *heller-skelter*, *hurry-scurry*.

5. Sometimes the adjective form of a word is used to perform the office of an adverb, particularly in poetry.

Ex.—"The swallow sings *sweet* from her nest in the wall."

A word should, however, always be parsed according to its office in the sentence. *Sweet*, in the example given, is therefore an adverb.

6. Many words, such as *no*, *well*, *better*, *more*, *most*, *long*, *worse*, *fast*, *late*, and *early*, may be used as either adverbs or adjectives.

7. In such sentences, as—

The eggs boil hard,
The clay burned white,
The apples taste sweet,
The child lay motionless,
The velvet feels smooth,
He felt better,
I feel bad,

if the verb *to be* or *to become* can be substituted for the verb in the sentence, the word following is an adjective. Thus,

hard, white, sweet, motionless, smooth, better, and bad in the foregoing sentences are all adjectives.

8. A conjunctive adverb is equivalent to two phrases, one of which contains a relative pronoun, and the other its antecedent; as, "Whither I go ye cannot come." *Whither* means "*to the place to which*."

In such sentences as "I know how it was done," *how* is not a conjunctive adverb, because alone it does not modify *know*. The whole expression "*how it was done*" is the objective modifier of *know*.

9. Some adverbs are used independently; as, "Yes, he will come," "Well, let us go," "Why, that is not possible."

There, when used to introduce a sentence, as in the sentence, "*There were four present*," may be called an independent adverb.

10. *The* is an adverb when it modifies an adjective or an adverb, as in the sentence, "*The more we sing the better we are pleased*."

11. *Far, farther, and farthest* are used when reference is made to distance or number; as, "It is *farther* to New Orleans than to Cincinnati."

Forth, further, and furthest are used when meaning something additional; as, "Nothing *further* was said."

Exercise.

Name the adverbs, tell the class, and show what each adverb modifies in the following sentences:

The bird flies swiftly. Throw the ball upward. The stream flows rapidly on. We may sometimes be disappointed. Come in. Come to school early. When will your friends arrive? Whither thou goest I will go. I feel very well. The lesson was well recited. Well, let us begin. There were six of us in the coach. Why he did this I cannot tell. Make hay while the sun shines. Be more studious. Where does your friend live? May we see you to-morrow? I feel very much better to-day. Time rolls on. How sweetly the bird sings! The older we become the wiser we should grow.

Order of Parsing.

1. An adverb.
2. Its class.
3. Tell what it modifies.

Models.

1. The stream runs rapidly.

ORAL FORM.

Rapidly is an adverb of manner, and modifies the verb *runs*.

2. Now came still evening on.

Now is an adverb of time, and modifies the verb *came*.

On is an adverb of place, and modifies the verb *came*.

3. They will come by and by.
4. Yes, I will send for him immediately.
5. We were carried nearly over the stream.

WRITTEN FORM.

Adverbs.	Kind.	Class.	Modifies.
by and by,	complex,	time,	<i>will come.</i>
yes,	independent,		
immediately,	time,	<i>will send.</i>
nearly,	degree,	<i>over the stream.</i>

Exercise.

Parse the adverbs in the following :

1. If the sun has gone down, look up at the stars.
2. Elocution, in order to be perfect, must convey the meaning clearly, forcibly, and agreeably.—*Whately*.
3. Our Revolution was mainly directed against the mere theory of tyranny.—*Clay*.
4. It is interesting to notice how some minds seem almost to create themselves, springing up under every disadvantage.—*Irving*.
5. Without labor, what is there? Without it, there were no world itself.—*Wm. Howitt*.

6. In vain imagination seeks to extend itself in our cultivated fields; it everywhere meets the habitations of men.—*Chateaubriand*.

7. Education, to accomplish the ends of good government, should be universally diffused.—*Webster*.

8. My voice is still for war!—*Addison*.

9. Once Switzerland was free! With what a pride
I used to walk these hills, look up to heaven,
And bless God that it was so!—*Knowles*.

10. While I nodded, nearly napping, suddenly there came a tapping,

As of some one gently rapping, rapping at my chamber-door.
Poe.

Parse also the nouns, the pronouns, the adjectives, and the verbs.

Synopsis.

- | | |
|----------------|--|
| Adverbs | 1. Time.
2. Place.
3. Degree.
4. Cause.
5. Manner.

<i>a.</i> Interrogative.
<i>b.</i> Conjunctive.
<i>c.</i> Independent. |
|----------------|--|

PREPOSITIONS.

A **Preposition** is a word which shows the relation between its object and some other word.

Ex.—The ball rolled *from* the table *to* the floor.

Note.—The word *preposition* is from the Latin *pre*, “before,” and *pono*, “I put.”

The preposition and its object form a phrase which modifies some preceding word, called the antecedent.

In the above example the phrases *from the table* and *to the floor* modify the verb *rolled*; hence, *from* shows the relation

between *rolled* and *table*, and *to* shows the relation between *rolled* and *floor*.

The object of a preposition may be any word or collection of words used as a noun or instead of a noun. The object is always in the objective case.

The preposition and its object may be used as either an adjective or an adverbial modifier.

Ex.—1. “The house on the hill is white.”

On the hill is an adjective modifier of *house*.

Ex.—2. “The house was built on the hill.”

On the hill is an adverbial modifier of *was built*.

The preposition always shows the relation between the antecedent and the object.

The preposition with its object is called an *adjunct*.

List of Prepositions.

Name the words between which each preposition shows the relation.

A : “The boys have gone *a-hunting*.”

Aboard : “They have gone *aboard* the ship.”

About : “The pupils were crowding *about* the door.”

Above : “Trenton is *above* Philadelphia.”

Across : “Camden is *across* the Delaware from Philadelphia.”

After : “The dogs ran *after* a fox.”

Against : “The ladder stands *against* the wall.”

Along : “Buildings are erected *along* the beach.”

Amid, amidst : “Oranges gleaming *amidst* the leaves.”

Among, amongst : “Divide the money *among* them all.”

Around, round : “We have driven *around* the island.”

At : “Look *at* the work closely.”

Athwart : “The vessel was struck *athwart* her bow.”

Before : “The prisoner stood *before* the bar.”

- Behind** : "The train was *behind* time."
- Below** : "The river is *below* the city."
- Beneath** : "His remark was *beneath* notice."
- Besides, beside** : "We want something *besides* knowledge."
- Between** : "Stand *between* us."
- Betwixt** : Formerly used for *between*.
- Beyond** : "The prize is *beyond* my grasp."
- But** : "Whence all *but* him had fled."
- By** : "A church stands *by* the wood."
- Concerning** : "It is nothing *concerning* you."
- Down** : "The stream flows *down* the valley."
- During** : "We recite *during* school-time."
- Except** : "All *except* John have gone."
- For** : "Buy a book *for* your brother."
- From** : "A book *from* the shelf."
- In** : "We sit *in* the boat."
- Into** : "Come *into* the house."
- Notwithstanding** : "They came *notwithstanding* our objections."
- Of** : "Six tons *of* coal."
- Off** : "The boy fell *off* the horse."
- On** : "We can rest *on* the platform."
- Over** : "The boy leaped *over* the brook."
- Past** : "It is now *past* time."
- Respecting** : "They inquired *respecting* our progress."
- Save** : "The entire crew *save* the captain were drowned."
- Since** : "I have lived here *since* January."
- Through** : "Look *through* the book."
- Throughout** : "We remained *throughout* the week."
- Till, until** : "Let us wait *till* noon."
- To, unto** : "Suffer little children to come *unto* me."
- Toward, towards** : "We ran *toward* the brook."
- Under** : "The mouse *under* the board was caught."
- Underneath** : "It crept *underneath* a box."
- Up** : "He clambered *up* the bank."
- Upon** : "Place your hand *upon* the table."

With : "Come *with* me."

Within : "A thousand were sold *within* six months."

Without : "No one becomes learned *without* labor."

According to : "We have done the work *according to* directions."

Contrary to : "They have gone *contrary to* our wishes."

As to : "I have nothing to say *as to* the crime."

From beyond : "They came *from beyond* Jordan."

From out : "They came *from out* Judea."

Out of : "Water spurts *out of* the pipe."

Remarks on Prepositions.

1. Two prepositions taken together may be parsed as a *Complex Preposition*; as in the sentences, "God hath set the one *over against* the other," "The children came flocking *out of* the house."

2. *But* is a preposition when it means *except*; as in the sentence, "All *but* him have gone."

3. *A* is a preposition when it means *at, on, in*; as in the expressions, *a-hunting, a-fishing*, etc.

4. In such expressions as *set in*, meaning *commenced*, and *was laughed at*, meaning *was ridiculed*, the preposition becomes a part of the verb, and should be so parsed.

5. The preposition is usually omitted after *like, near, nigh, and opposite*; as, "The boy is *like* his father," "The house stands *near* the road," "It is *opposite* the church."

If the verb preceding *like* expresses definite action, the noun or the pronoun following *like* is in the nominative case to a verb understood; as, "The bird flies *like* a robin" (flies), "He drives *like* Jehu" (drives).

If the verb preceding *like* does not express definite action, the noun or the pronoun following is in the objective case after *to* or *unto*, understood, or after *like* used as a preposition; as, "He is *like* me," "John looks *like* his father."

6. Some words which are commonly used as prepositions are used also as adverbs, when not followed by an objective; as, "Come *in*," "Come *up* higher," "He goes *on*."

Order of Parsing.

1. A Preposition.
2. It shows the relation between what words?

Models.

1. A path leads through the field.

Through is a preposition showing the relation between *leads* and *field*.

2. From virtue to vice the progress is gradual.
3. The birds came from beyond the river.
4. We shall travel by rail from Boston to New York.

WRITTEN FORM.

Prepositions.	Relation between.
From,	progress and virtue.
to,	progress and vice.
from beyond,	came and river.
by,	travel and rail.
from,	travel and Boston.
to,	travel and New York.

Exercise.

Parse the prepositions in the following :

1. Civilization depends on morality.—*Emerson*.
2. Everything good in man leans on what is higher.—*Emerson*.
3. If we go to Nature for our morals, we shall learn the necessity of perfection in the smallest act.—*T. Starr King*.
4. One by one the objects of our affection depart from us.—*Longfellow*.
5. The prose works of Milton are radiant with satire of the sharpest kind.—*Whipple*.
6. As a rule, the hottest water of the Gulf Stream is at, or near, the surface.—*Maury*.
7. My life is like the summer rose
That opens to the morning sky,
But, ere the shades of evening close,
Is scattered on the ground—to die.—*Wilde*.

8. They sat in silent watchfulness the sacred cypress-tree about.—*Whittier.*

9. Poor wanderers of a stormy day,
From wave to wave we're driven.—*Moore.*

Parse also the nouns, the pronouns, the adjectives, the verbs, and the adverbs.

CONJUNCTIONS.

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, sentences, or parts of sentences.

- Ex.**—1. John *and* William have come.
2. The sun is shining *and* the air is pure.
3. He will move *neither* to the right *nor* to the left.

Note.—The word *conjunction* is from the Latin *con*, “with,” and *jungo*, “I join.”

Conjunctions connect like parts; thus, nouns or pronouns with nouns or pronouns, verbs with verbs, phrases with phrases, and clauses with clauses.

Classes.

Conjunctions are either *Co-ordinate* or *Subordinate*.

A **Co-ordinate Conjunction** is one that connects elements or parts of equal rank; as, “You may go, *but* I will remain.”

The principal co-ordinate conjunctions are,

And,	but,	nevertheless,	nor,
also,	still,	notwithstanding,	neither,
else,	yet,	as well as,	or,

either.

A **Subordinate Conjunction** is one that connects a

modifying part to the principal or modified part; as, "He will teach us *if* he has time," "Listen, *that* you may understand."

The principal subordinate conjunctions are,

If,	lest,	for,	provided,
though,	except,	since,	because,
although,	whether,	as,	whereas,
unless,	that,	than,	inasmuch as.

Correlatives.

Correlative Conjunctions are those used in pairs to mark the sense more closely.

The chief correlatives are—

Both . . . and: "Men are *both* wise *and* foolish."

Either . . . or: "Words are *either* simple *or* compound."

Neither . . . nor: "*Neither* the one *nor* the other came."

Whether . . . or: "I care not *whether* John *or* Mary comes."

If then: "*If* this be treason, *then* make the most of it."

Though . . . yet: "*Though* deep, *yet* clear."

General Remarks on Conjunctions.

1. When two or more words are taken together as a connective, they may be parsed as a *Complex Conjunction*; as, "He spoke *as if* he believed what he said."

The principal complex conjunctions are—

as well as,	inasmuch as,	except that,
as if,	but that,	but likewise,
forasmuch as,	but also,	even though.

Order of Parsing.

1. A Conjunction.
2. Co-ordinate or Subordinate.
3. It connects what?

Models.

1. Time is short, and art is long.

And is a co-ordinate conjunction, and connects the two clauses "Time is short," and "art is long."

2. Take heed lest ye fall.

Lest is a subordinate conjunction, and connects the subordinate clause, "ye fall" with the principal clause, "Take heed."

3. We must either study or fail.

4. The boys as well as the men are industrious.

5. Both the wise and the unwise must suffer.

WRITTEN FORM.

Conjunctions.	Class.	Office.
Either,	Co-ordinate,	Correlative of <i>or</i> .
or,	"	Connects <i>study</i> and <i>fail</i> .
as well as,	"	Connects <i>boys</i> and <i>men</i> .
both,	"	Correlative of <i>and</i> .
and,	"	Connects <i>the wise</i> and <i>the unwise</i> .

Exercises.

Parse the conjunctions in the following :

1. Death is at all times solemn, but never so much so as at sea.—*Dana*.

2. But the recorded experience and wisdom of others may be of the greatest aid and benefit to us.—*Trowbridge*.

3. Inaction is the symbol of death, if it is not death itself.—*Alex. H. Stephens*.

4. Method is the hinge of business, and there is no method without order and punctuality.—*H. Mann*.

5. Let not the emphasis of hospitality be in bed and board, but let truth and love and honor and courtesy flow in all thy deeds.—*Emerson*.

6. The characteristic peculiarity of *Pilgrim's Progress* is, that it is the only work of its kind which possesses a strong human interest.—*Macaulay*.

7. And now, farewell! Time unrevoked has run
His wonted course, yet what I wished is done.—*Couper.*
8. But who the melodies of morn can tell?—*Beattie.*

Parse also the other parts of speech.

Interjections.

An **Interjection** is a word used to express some strong or sudden emotion; as, *oh!* *alas!* *zounds!*

Interjections have no grammatical connection. They are independent.

Note.—The word *interjection* is from the Latin *inter*, “between,” and *jacio*, “I throw.”

The following are the principal interjections:

Ah, alas, fudge, poh, ho, aha, hist, heigho, bravo, oh, alack, tush, pooh, hallo, hurrah, humph, heyday, adieu, O, ha, pshaw, fie, halloo, huzza, hush, hail, avaunt.

O, as an interjection, should always be written as a capital letter.

Other parts of speech when used to express a sudden emotion become interjections; as, *strange!* *what!* *behold!* *off!* *away!* *farewell!* *hush!* *nonsense!* *shocking!*

Model.

Hush! did ye not hear it?

Hush is an interjection; it has no grammatical connection.

Exercise.

Parse the interjections in the following sentences:

1. Ha! laugh'st thou, Lochiel, my vision to scorn?—*Campbell.*
2. O happiness! our being's end and aim!—*Pope.*
3. Oh soothe him whose pleasures like thine pass away!—*Beattie.*
4. Alas! how light a cause may move
Dissension between hearts that love!—*Moore.*

5. Oh, it is excellent
To have a giant's strength ; but it is tyrannous
To use it like a giant.—*Shakespeare*.
6. Adieu, adieu ! My native shore
Fades o'er the waters blue.—*Byron*.
7. Farewell, farewell to thee, Araby's daughter !—*Moore*.

Words used as Different Parts of Speech.

Remark.—A word should be parsed according to the office it fills.

As is (1.) a *Conjunction* when it denotes *since, because*.

Ex.—As he was ambitious, I slew him.

(2.) An *Adverb* when it expresses *time, degree, or manner*.

Ex.—He came as we left. Sing as I do.

Before, After, Till, Until, are (1.) *Adverbs* when not followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case.

Ex.—Look before you leap. Come after you have seen the work.
Wait until I come home.

(2.) *Prepositions* when followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case.

Ex.—The mountain rose before him. The dog ran after the sheep.
Let us wait until morning.

Both is (1.) an *Adjective* when it limits a noun.

Ex.—Both pupils recited well.

(2.) A *Conjunction* when it is used with *and* to connect sentences or parts of sentences.

Ex.—The ladies are both young and beautiful.

But is (1.) a *Preposition* when it means *except*.

Ex.—All but him had departed.

(2.) An *Adverb* when it means *only*.

Ex.—I have but one apple left.

(3.) A *Conjunction* when it connects sentences or parts of sentences.

Ex.—Summer has gone, but it will return again.

Either and **Neither** are (1.) *Pronominal Adjectives* when they limit or represent nouns.

Ex.—Either solution is correct. Neither of us is right.

(2.) *Conjunctions* when they assist in connecting sentences or parts of sentences.

Ex.—Neither trials nor difficulties shall interrupt him.

For is (1.) a *Conjunction* when it means *because*, or is used in giving a reason.

Ex.—Let us return, for it is getting late.

(2.) A *Preposition* when it is followed by an objective.

Ex.—I will buy a book for him.

Like is (1.) a *Noun* when it is a name.

Ex.—Like begets like.

(2.) A *Verb* when it expresses *action*.

Ex.—I like what is right.

(3.) An *Adjective* when it describes a noun.

Ex.—This book is like the other.

(4.) A *Conjunctive Adverb* when it connects sentences.

Ex.—The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold.

Since is (1.) a *Conjunction* when it means *for the reason that*.

Ex.—I will attend to the work, since you desire it.

(2.) A *Preposition* when followed by a noun in the objective case denoting time.

Ex.—The country has been prosperous since the war.

(3.) An *Adverb* in all other cases.

Ex.—A century has elapsed since Independence was declared.

That is (1.) a *Relative Pronoun* when *who*, *which*, or *what* can be substituted for it.

Ex.—These are the best that I have.

- (2.) A *Pronominal Adjective* when it limits or represents a noun.

Ex.—That book is mine. This book is better than that.

- (3.) A *Conjunction* when it connects sentences.

Ex.—So live that you may not fear death.

Then is (1.) a *Conjunction* when it means *therefore* or *in that case*.

Ex.—If this be true, then he is to blame.

- (2.) An *Adverb* when it expresses *time*.

Ex.—We then discovered that all was lost.

What is (1.) a *Relative Pronoun* when *that which* or *those which* can be substituted.

Ex.—I have found what I lost.

- (2.) An *Interrogative Pronoun* when it is used to ask a question.

Ex.—What have you learned to-day?

- (3.) A *Pronominal Adjective* when it limits a noun.

Ex.—What beautiful scenery surrounds us!

- (4.) A *Pronominal Adjective* and a *Relative Pronoun* when it limits a noun, and at the same time *that which* or *those which* can be substituted for it.

Ex.—What books we have are somewhat torn.

- (5.) An *Adverb* when it means *partly*.

Ex.—What by threats and what by entreaty, I succeeded.

- (6.) An *Interjection* when uttered as an exclamation of surprise.

Ex.—What! shall we permit them to conquer us?

While is (1.) a *Noun* when it means *a space of time*.

Ex.—Let them study for a while.

- (2.) A *Verb* when it means *to spend* or *pass*.

Ex.—We read to while away an hour.

(3.) An *Adverb* when it means *during the time in which*.

Ex.—They were quiet while we were present.

Yet is (1.) an *Adverb* when it means *thus far, at the present time, or in addition*.

Ex.—I have not yet recovered from my fright.

(2.) A *Conjunction* when it means *nevertheless, notwithstanding*.

Ex.—Though he is rich, yet he may become poor.

Well is (1.) a *Noun* when it is used as a name.

Ex.—The well is filled with water.

(2.) An *Adjective* when it means *condition*.

Ex.—All is well. We are all well.

(3.) A *Verb* when it expresses *action*.

Ex.—The stream seemed to well out from the rocks.

(4.) An *Adverb* when used to modify a verb.

Ex.—The lesson was well studied.

(5.) An *Interjection* when used simply as an exclamation.

Ex.—Well! well! Is it possible that he could have behaved so badly?

(6.) An *Independent Adverb* when used to introduce a sentence.

Ex.—Well, let us return to our work.

General Exercise.

Parse all the words in the following sentences:

1. It is not labor that makes things valuable, but their being valuable that makes them worth laboring for.—*Whately*.

2. Science, art, literature, philosophy,—all that man has done,—the experience that has been bought with the sufferings of a hundred generations,—all have been garnered up for us in the world of books.—*E. P. Whipple*.

3. It is pity that, commonly, more care is had—yea, and that among

very wise men—to find out rather a cunning man for their horse than a cunning man for their children.—*Ascham*.

4. Our work is a divine work. We carry on what God began. What a glorious spectacle is that of the labor of man upon the earth! Look around and tell me what you see that is worth seeing that is not the work of your hands and the hands of your fellows,—the multitude of all ages.—*Howitt*.

5. Whatever we see or perceive in heaven or on earth is the product of labor. The sky above us, the ground beneath us, the air we breathe, the sun, the moon, the stars, what are they? The product of labor. They are the labors of the Omnipotent, and all our labors are but a continuance of His.—*Howitt*.

6. Learning taketh away the wildness, and barbarism, and fierceness of men's minds: though a little superficial learning doth rather work a contrary effect.—*Bacon*.

7. Men are but children of a larger growth.—*Dryden*.

8. What nothing earthly gives or can destroy,
The soul's calm sunshine and the heartfelt joy,
Is virtue's prize.—*Pope*.

9. The soul, secured in her existence, smiles
At the drawn dagger, and defies its point.—*Addison*.

10. Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.—*Goldsmith*.

11. He is the freeman whom the truth makes free,
And all are slaves beside.—*Cowper*.

12. Variety's the spice of life,
That gives it all its flavor.—*Cowper*.

13. 'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view,
And robes the mountain in its azure hue.—*Campbell*.

14. Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting;
The soul that rises with us, our life's star,
Hath had elsewhere its setting,
And cometh from afar.—*Wordsworth*.

15. Call not that man wretched who, whatever ills he suffers, has a child to love.—*Southern*.

16. They say, "This shall be," and it is,
For ere they act they think.—*Burns*.
 17. The enemy, having his country wasted, what by himself and
what by the soldiers, findeth succor in no place.—*Spenser*.
 18. Love, and love only, is the loan for love.—*Young*.
 19. "Banished from Rome!" What's banished, but set free
From daily contact of the things I loathe?—*Croly*.
 20. Hard by a cottage-chimney smokes
From betwixt two aged oaks.—*Milton*.
 21. Good-bye, proud world! I'm going home;
Thou art not my friend, and I'm not thine.—*Emerson*.
 22. So live, that, when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan, which moves
To that mysterious realm where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not, like the quarry slave at night,
Scourged to his dungeon, but, sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.—*Bryant*.

Remark.—The following form will be found convenient for written parsing:

- | | | | | |
|--------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------|---|
| 1. | <i>He</i> | <i>is</i> | <i>the</i> | <i>freeman whom the truth makes free.</i> |
| Pro., | verb, | art., | noun, | pro., art., noun, verb, adj., |
| per., | intran., | <i>freeman</i> , | com., | rel., <i>truth</i> , com., tran., qual., |
| 3d, | indic., | | 3d, | 3d, act., <i>whom</i> . |
| sing., | pres., | | sing., | sing., indic., |
| mas., | 3d, | | mas., | neut., pres., |
| nom., | <i>sing.</i> , | | nom., | nom., 3d, |
| is, | <i>He</i> , | (after) <i>is</i> , | <i>makes</i> , | <i>makes</i> , sing., |
| | | | | <i>truth.</i> |
| 2. | <i>The</i> | <i>wise</i> | <i>man</i> | <i>strives to search diligently for truth.</i> |
| Art., | adj., | noun, | verb, | adv., prep., noun, |
| <i>man</i> , | qual., | com., | intran., | intran., manner, <i>to search</i> , com., |
| | <i>man</i> , | 3d, | indic., | infin., <i>to search</i> , and <i>truth</i> , 3d, |
| | | sing., | pres., | sing., |
| | | mas., | 3d, | neut., |
| | | nom., | sing., | obj., |
| | | <i>strives</i> , | <i>man</i> , | <i>for.</i> |

PART III.

SYNTAX.

Syntax treats of sentences and their structure.

A **Sentence** is a thought expressed in words.

Ex.—“Birds sing.” “Plants grow.” “Roses bloom in summer.”

A **Proposition** is the combination of a subject and its predicate.

Propositions are either *Principal* or *Subordinate*.

A **Principal Clause** or **Proposition** is one which makes sense when standing alone.

A **Subordinate Clause** or **Proposition** is one which makes sense only when used with the principal clause or proposition, the connective being a part of the subordinate clause.

Thus, in the sentence, “They came when they were called,” *They came* is the principal proposition, and *when they were called* is the subordinate.

Remark.—A sentence may contain one proposition or more than one.

To express a thought something must be said of some object.

Ex.—“Snow falls.” “Water freezes in winter.”

The *Subject* is that of which something is said or asserted.

Thus, *snow* is the subject of the first sentence, and *water* is the subject of the second.

The *Predicate* shows what is said or asserted of the subject.

Thus, in the two preceding sentences *falls* is the predicate of the first, and *freezes in winter* is the predicate of the second.

Exercise.

1. *Write subjects instead of the following blanks:*

..... blow. fade. bloom. run.
 come. learns. swims. shines. shines
 at night. shines by day. fell. thaws.
 melts. is running. will come. sleeps.
 sews. play. study. falls in winter.

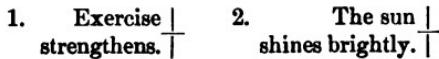
2. *Write predicates instead of the following blanks:*

Mary _____. Spring _____. Rain _____. Snow _____. Ice
 _____. Flowers _____. Roses _____. Boys _____. Men _____.
 The grass _____. The lofty tree _____. The river _____. A
 wise son _____. Four little boys _____. The robin _____. All
 the boys _____. The moon _____. Ducks _____.

3. *Name the subjects and the predicates in the following sentences:*

Snow falls. Snow falls in winter. The stars are distant worlds.
 The sun shines by day. See, the sun shines. When did you come?
 How far must we travel? The train starts at nine. The clouds indicate rain.
 Diligent pupils learn rapidly. The thinker becomes the scholar.
 The sun sets in the west. Time flies. Who has come?
 John has come. The sunshine melts the snow. The nights are very cold.
 Chalk is white. Chalk is white and brittle. Merrily sings the bird.
 Gracefully bends the willow. The tree was fifty feet high.
 Shakespeare wrote many plays. Exercise strengthens us. Books are good company.
 Grammar is an important study. Study your lesson well.
 Come to see us early. The book is well and carefully written.
 Where did you buy the book?

For written work the following diagram may be used in analyzing, the upper line representing the subject, and the lower the predicate:



Classes of Sentences according to Use.

According to their use, sentences may be divided into four classes—*Declarative*, *Interrogative*, *Imperative*, and *Exclamatory*.

A **Declarative Sentence** is one used to affirm or deny ; as,

1. We have studied our lessons.
2. He does not remain at home.

An **Interrogative Sentence** is one used to ask a question ; as,

When shall we see you again ?

An **Imperative Sentence** is one used to express a command or an entreaty ; as,

1. Depart from evil.
2. Let us go home.

An **Exclamatory Sentence** is one used in exclamation ; as,

1. How wise he is !
2. Alas, we are left alone !

Exercise.

Name the class to which each of the following sentences belongs :

1. Where are the swallows fled ?—*Miss Procter*.
2. Where, oh where, are the visions of morning ?—*Holmes*.
3. How sweet the answer Echo makes
To music at night!—*Moore*.
4. The fountains mingle with the river,
And the rivers with the ocean.—*Shelley*.
5. Defer not till to-morrow to be wise.—*Congreve*.
6. “But why do you go?” said the lady.—*E. B. Browning*.
7. Cast forth thy act, thy word, into the ever-living, ever-working universe.—*Carlyle*.

8. Thank Heaven for breath—yea, for mere breath—when it is made up of a breeze like this.—*Hawthorne*.
9. Cromwell, I did not think to shed a tear.—*Shakespeare*.
10. How wonderful is Death—
Death and his brother, Sleep!—*Shelley*.

Classes of Sentences with Regard to Form.

With regard to form, sentences may be divided into three classes—*Simple*, *Complex*, and *Compound*.

A Simple Sentence is one which contains a single proposition ; as,

Flowers are beautiful. Boys like play. Studious pupils learn readily.

A Complex Sentence is one which contains a principal proposition modified by one or more subordinate propositions ; as,

1. The sun was shining *as we came to school*.
2. The girl *who studies* will improve.

In the first sentence, *The sun was shining* is the principal proposition, and the remainder of the sentence the subordinate.

In the second sentence, *The girl will improve* is the principal proposition, and *who studies* is the subordinate.

The propositions in Complex Sentences are called *Clauses*.

A Compound Sentence is one which contains two or more principal propositions ; as,

1. The sun shone, and the ice was melted.
2. We shall go if it be pleasant, but if it rain we shall remain at home.

The parts of Compound Sentences are called *Members*.

The words used to connect the propositions of Complex and Compound Sentences are called *Connectives*.

Remarks.

A simple sentence may have a compound subject.

Ex.—*Music and painting* are arts.

A simple sentence may have a compound predicate.

Ex.—She can knit and sew.

A simple sentence may have a compound subject and a compound predicate.

Ex.—*Boys and girls study and play*.

Note.—Each of the foregoing sentences is a single statement or proposition, and therefore a simple sentence.

“*Rivers and brooks are streams of water*” is a simple sentence as much as the sentence, “*A river and a brook are streams of water*.” Each is a single proposition.

The connectives joining subordinate to principal propositions are either *relative pronouns*, *conjunctive adverbs*, or *subordinate conjunctions*.

The connectives joining the members of compound sentences are *co-ordinate conjunctions*.

Sometimes the connective is understood.

Ex.—He thinks (that) you will come to-morrow.

Models for Classification.

1. *The better part of valor is discretion.*

This is a simple declarative sentence—*simple*, because it contains but one proposition; and *declarative*, because it is used to affirm.

2. *When I was a child I spake as a child.*

This is a complex declarative sentence; *complex*, because it contains a principal proposition, “*I spake as a child*,” modified by a subordinate proposition, “*when I was a child*;” and *declarative*, because it is used to affirm.

3. *Bring your books and prepare to study.*

This is a compound imperative sentence—*compound*, because it contains two principal propositions, “*Bring your books*” and “*prepare to study*;” and *imperative*, because it expresses a command.

Exercise.

Classify the following sentences:

1. There is a garden in her face,
Where roses and white lilies blow.—*R. Allison.*
2. Who can tell what a baby thinks?—*Holland.*
3. Who can follow the gossamer links
By which the manikin feels his way
Out from the shore of the great unknown?—*Holland.*
4. How sweetly doth the moonbeam smile
To-night upon yon leafy isle!—*Moore.*
5. The sun had scarcely begun to shed his beams upon the summits of the snowy mountains which rise above Grenada, when the Christian camp was in motion.—*Irving.*
6. Great nations resemble great men in this particular, that their greatness is seldom known until they get in trouble.—*Irving.*
7. When the lamp is shattered
The light in the dust lies dead.—*Shelley.*
8. Lord, tarry not, but come.—*Bonar.*
9. “Shall I have naught that is fair?” saith he,
“Have naught but the bearded grain?”—*Longfellow.*
10. A man of real merit is never seen in so favorable a light as through the medium of adversity.—*Hamilton.*
11. The native brilliancy of the diamond needs not the polish of art.—*Hamilton.*
12. The conspicuous features of pre-eminent merit need not the coloring pencil of imagination nor the florid decorations of rhetoric.—*Hamilton.*
13. Soldier, rest! thy warfare o'er,
Dream of fighting fields no more.—*Scott.*
14. To one unaccustomed to it there is something inexpressibly lonely in the solitude of a prairie.—*Irving.*

15. Life is a bubble which any breath may dissolve.—*Greeley.*
16. How beautiful the long mild twilight, which, like a silver clasp, unites to-day with yesterday!—*Longfellow.*
17. Life bears us on like the stream of a mighty river.—*Heber.*
18. God has given the land to man, but the sea He has reserved to himself.—*Swain.*
19. Were all the interesting diversities of color and form to disappear, how unsightly, dull, and wearisome would be the aspect of the world!—*Dwight.*
20. How can we expect the fabric of the government to stand if vicious materials are daily wrought into its framework?—*H. Mann.*
21. The whole land must be watered with the stream of knowledge.—*H. Mann.*
22. These, as they change, Almighty Father, these
Are but the varied God.—*Thomson.*
23. Labor is rest from the sorrows that greet us.—*Frances S. Osgood.*
24. The air is full of poetry, the air
Is living with its spirit; and the waves
Dance to the music of its melodies,
And sparkle in its brightness.—*Percival.*
25. Lo, the lilies of the field!
How their leaves instruction yield!—*Heber.*

Divisions of Syntax.

The component parts of a sentence are called *Elements.*

Analysis is the separation of a sentence into the elements of which it is composed.

Note.—The word *analysis* is derived from the Greek *ana*, “again,” and *lyein*, “to loose.”

Synthesis is the construction of sentences from words.

Note.—The word *synthesis* is from the Greek *syn*, “with,” and *tithenai*, “to place.”

Elements of Sentences.

The **Elements of Sentences** are the *Principal*, the *Modifying*, the *Connecting*, and the *Independent* parts.

The **Principal** Elements are those which are necessary to the construction of a sentence. They are the *Subject* and the *Predicate*.

The **Modifying** Elements are those used to limit or modify other elements. They are either *Adjective*, *Adverbial*, or *Objective*.

The **Connectives** are those which unite words, phrases, or clauses.

The **Independent** parts are those which have no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

The Subject.

The **Subject** of a sentence may be either *Simple*, *Complex*, or *Compound*.

The **Simple** Subject is a noun or a pronoun, or some word, phrase, or clause used as a noun ; as,

Ice melts. *She* sings. *The* is a word. + is the sign of addition. *Lying* is wicked. *To lie* is wicked. *For us to lie* is wicked. *That one should lie* is wicked.

The *Simple* Subject is also called the *Grammatical Subject*.

Exercise.

Name the simple subjects in the following sentences :

1. A book is good company.—*Beecher*.
2. Blessed is he who has found his work !—*Carlyle*.
3. It is noble to seek truth, and it is beautiful to find it.—*Sydney Smith*.
4. Never speak anything for a truth which you know or believe to be false.—*Hale*.

5. Precious and priceless are the blessings which books scatter around our daily paths.—*Whipple*.
6. The true hero is the great, wise man of duty.—*Bushnell*.
7. The relations between man and man cease not with life.—*Norton*.
8. The dead leave behind them their memory, their example, and the effects of their actions.—*Norton*.
9. In its sublime research, philosophy
May measure out the ocean deep.—*Derzhavin*.
10. The frugal snail, with forecast of repose,
Carries his house with him where'er he goes.—*Lamb*.
11. Better than gold is the sweet repose
Of the sons of toil when their labors close.—*Smart*.

The Predicate.

The **Predicate** of a sentence may be either *Simple*, *Complex*, or *Compound*.

The **Simple Predicate** is always a finite verb or an attribute with its copula; as, “Birds *sing*,” “Exercise *strengthens*,” “Snow *falls*,” “Snow *is falling*,” “Snow *is white*,” “Snow *is frozen moisture*,” “Man *is mortal*,” “Man *is an animal*,” “To obey *is to enjoy*.”

The **Attribute** is an adjective, a noun, or some equivalent expression.

The **Copula** is either the verb *to be* or some other neuter verb.

The *Simple Predicate* is also called the *Grammatical Predicate*.

The **Attribute** may be a word, a phrase, or a clause; as, “His wish *is proper*,” “His wish *is to do right*,” “His wish *is that we may call to see him*.”

Exercise.

Name the simple or grammatical predicates in the following sentences :

1. Every man must patiently abide his time.—*Longfellow.*
2. To be a gentleman does not depend upon the tailor or the toilet.—*Bishop Doane.*
3. On a winged word hath hung the destiny of nations.—*Landor.*
4. Open the doors of the schoolhouse to all the children of the land.—*Webster.*
5. Education is not confined to books alone.—*Trowbridge.*
6. The world, with its thousand interests and occupations, is a great school.—*Trowbridge.*
7. The crown and glory of life is character.—*Smiles.*
8. Every natural action is graceful.—*Emerson.*
9. The blow most dreaded falls to break
 From off our limbs a chain.—*Whittier.*
10. I never could find a good reason
 Why sorrow unbidden should stay,
 And all the bright joys of life's season
 Be driven unheeded away.—*Geo. P. Morris.*

The **Complex or Logical Subject** is the simple subject with its modifiers.

A **Modifier** is a word which limits or qualifies the meaning of another word.

The *Logical Subject* is the entire subject.

The subject, when a noun or a pronoun, may be limited as follows :

1. By any word, phrase, or clause that may be used as an adjective; as, “*Wise* men are respected,” “Men of *wisdom* are respected,” “Men *who are wise* are respected.”
2. By a noun or a pronoun in the *possessive case*; as, “*John's* book is torn,” “His *father's* house was destroyed.”
3. By a noun or a pronoun in *apposition*; as, “The ship *Nantucket* was wrecked,” “Paul *the apostle* preached.”

4. By a *participle*; as, "The lessons *assigned* have been recited."

5. By a *verb* in the infinitive mode; as, "The task *to be performed* has been assigned."

Remark.—An element which modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun is an *Adjective Element*.

When the subject of a sentence is an infinitive or a participle it may be modified as a verb.

For written analysis the following forms may be used:

1. *Men of wisdom are respected.*

Men | of wisdom
are respected. |

Explanation.—The subject and the predicate are placed to the left of the perpendicular line, and each modifier to the right of the word which it modifies. *Of wisdom* modifies *men*, and is therefore placed to the right of the subject.

2. *Men who are wise are respected.*

Men | <sup>who | are wise |
are respected. |

Explanation.—*Who are wise* is a subordinate clause, having the subject *who* and the predicate *are wise*, but it also modifies *men*, and is therefore placed to the right of it.

3. *Paul the apostle preached.*

Paul | apostle | the
preached. |

Explanation.—*Apostle*, modifying *Paul*, is placed to the right of it, and *the*, modifying *apostle*, is placed to the right of that word.

4. *The task to be performed has been assigned.*

task | The
to be performed |
has been assigned. |

Explanation.—The modifiers of *task* are *The* and *to be performed*.

Exercise.

Name the grammatical subject, the modifiers, and the logical subject in each of the following sentences :

1. Without knowledge there can be no sure progress.—*Sumner.*
2. The Golden Rule contains the very life and soul of politeness.—*Mrs. Child.*
3. The character of Washington is among the most cherished contemplations of my life.—*Webster.*
4. On the diffusion of education among the people rest the preservation and perpetuation of our free institutions.—*Webster.*
5. The hardest way of learning is by easy reading.—*Theo. Parker.*
6. Nothing great or good can be accomplished without toil.—*A. H. Stephens.*
7. Reading without purpose is sauntering, not exercise.—*Lord Lytton.*
8. There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.—*Shakespeare.*
9. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods.—*Byron.*

The **Complex or Logical Predicate** is the simple predicate with its modifiers.

The *Logical Predicate* is the entire predicate.

The predicate verb may be modified as follows :

1. By any word, phrase, or clause performing the office of an adverb ; as, "The bird flew *rapidly*," "The bird flew *in this direction*," "They read *that they may improve*."
2. By an infinitive ; as, "They sing *to please you*."

When a transitive verb, active voice, is followed by any word, phrase, or clause, used as a noun in the objective case after the verb, this object with its modifiers is called an *Objective Element*.

All elements that modify verbs are either *Adverbial* or *Objective*.

Any element that modifies an Adjective or an Adverb is an *Adverbial Element*.

Definitions.

An **Adjective Element** is one which modifies a noun or a pronoun.

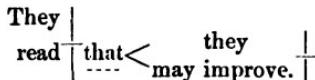
An **Adverbial Element** is one which modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

An **Objective Element** is one which modifies a transitive verb in the active voice, as the direct object.

Remark.—Prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, as such, are not limited, nor do they limit.

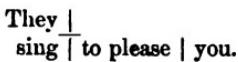
FORMS FOR WRITTEN ANALYSIS.

1. *They read that they may improve.*



Explanation.—A dotted line is used under conjunctions that connect subordinate clauses to the principal. The dotted line also indicates that the conjunction does not modify.

2. *They sing to please you.*



Explanation.—*To please*, an adverbial element, modifies *sing*, and *you*, an objective element, modifies *to please*.

Exercise.

Name the grammatical predicate, the modifiers, and the logical predicate in the following sentences:

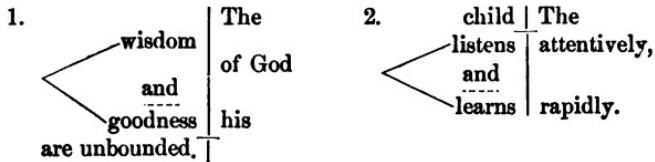
1. Vice and barbarism are the inseparable companions of ignorance.—*Sumner*.
2. Good clothes are not good habits.—*Bishop Doane*.
3. Fatigue generally begins, and is always increased, by calculating in a minute the exertion of hours.—*Jane Taylor*.
4. Honor lies in doing well whatever we find to do.—*Trowbridge*.

5. Words convey the mental treasure of one period to the generations that follow.—*Trench.*
6. Language is the amber in which a thousand precious thoughts have been safely imbedded and preserved.—*Trench.*
7. Be careful that you do not commend yourselves.—*Sir Matthew Hale.*
8. A great man is always willing to be little.—*Emerson.*
9. But who the melodies of morn can tell?—*Beattie.*
10. The smallest bark on life's tempestuous ocean
Will leave a track behind for evermore.—*Mrs. Bolton.*
11. With silent awe I hail the sacred morn.—*Dr. J. Leyden.*

A **Compound Subject** consists of two or more simple or logical subjects; as, “*Demosthenes and Cicero were great orators,*” “*The wisdom of God and his goodness are unbounded.*”

A **Compound Predicate** consists of two or more simple or logical predicates; as, “*We may go or stay,*” “*The child listens attentively, and learns rapidly.*”

WRITTEN FORMS FOR COMPOUND SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES.



Exercise.

Name the subjects and the predicates, simple, complex, and compound, in the following sentences:

1. The best-laid plans, the most important affairs, the fortunes of individuals, the weal of nations, honor, life itself, are daily sacrificed because somebody is behind time.—*Freeman Hunt.*
2. The vine-clad cottage of the hillside, the cabin of the woodsman, and the rural home of the farmer are the true citadels of any country.—*Bishop Whipple.*
3. The ocean, the mountains, the clouds, the heavens, the stars, the rising and setting sun, all overflow with beauty.—*W. E. Channing.*

4. No arch nor column in courtly English, or courtlier Latin, sets forth the deeds and the worth of the Father of his country.—*Everett*.
5. The sorrow for the dead is the only sorrow from which we refuse to be divorced.—*Irving*.
6. The woods, the wilds, and the waters respond to savage intelligence.—*Bancroft*.
7. Honor and shame from no condition rise;
Act well your part, there all the honor lies.—*Pope*.
8. The more we live, more brief appear
Our life's succeeding stages.—*Campbell*.

Modifiers.

A *Noun* may be modified as follows:

1. By an *adjective*; as, “*Wise men*,” “*Good girls*.”
2. By a *phrase*; as, “*Men of prudence*,” “*Gates of gold*.”
3. By a *clause*; as, “*Pupils who are attentive*.”
4. By a *participle*; as, “*The army having retreated*, the alarm ceased.”
5. By a *verb in the infinitive mode*; as, “*Our efforts to improve were successful*.”
6. By a *noun or a pronoun in the possessive case*; as, “*The farmer's crops were gathered*.”
7. By a *noun in apposition*; as, “*The ship *Ironsides* came into port*.”

A *Pronoun* may be modified in all respects as a noun, except that it is not limited by a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case.

The modifiers of either nouns or pronouns are *Adjective elements*.

An *Adjective* may be modified—

1. By an *adverb*; as, “*The wall is *very* white*.”
2. By a *phrase*; as, “*Wise in his own opinion*.”
3. By a *clause*; as, “*He was so tired that he fell asleep*.”

4. By an *infinitive*; as, "Anxious to study."

All modifiers of adjectives are *Adverbial elements*.

A *Verb* may be modified—

1. By an *adverb*; as, "Study *diligently*."
2. By a *phrase*; as, "He writes *with ease*."
3. By a *clause*; as, "We read *that we may understand*."
4. By an *infinitive*; as, "We came *to recite*."
5. By an *objective*; as, "The farmer tills the *ground*."

Only a *transitive verb, active voice*, can have an objective; this is called an *Objective element*.

All other elements limiting verbs are *Adverbial elements*.

An *Adverb* may be modified—

1. By an *adverb*; as, "The brook flows *very rapidly*."
2. By a *phrase*; as, "He came *agreeably to promise*."

All modifiers of adverbs are *Adverbial elements*.

Adverbial phrases or elements are modified like adverbs. Thus, in the sentence, "He was shot *just below the eye*," the adverb *just* modifies the adverbial phrase *below the eye*.

Infinitives are always modified as verbs.

Participles when used as nouns may be modified both as nouns and as verbs.

WRITTEN FORMS FOR MODIFIERS.

Direction.—Place modifiers to the right of the words which they modify.

1. The rain fell on the grass and restored its freshness.
2. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.
3. The bullets flew directly over our heads.

1. rain | The
 fell | on grass | the
 and |
 restored | freshness. | its
2. landscape | the
 glimmering
 Now
 fades | on sight. | the
3. bullets | The
 flew | over heads. | our
 \underline{ } | directly
- Explanation.—Directly* modifies the phrase *over our heads*.

Exercise.

Name the modifiers in the following sentences, and tell what each modifies:

1. A cottage flower gives honey to the bee—a king's garden, none to the butterfly.—*Lord Lytton*.
2. Motion is the law of living nature.—*A. H. Stephens*.
3. Energy is the steam-power, the motive principle, of intellectual capacity.—*A. H. Stephens*.
4. The charities of life are scattered everywhere, enameling the vales of human beings as the flowers paint the meadows.—*Bancroft*.
5. Does not almost every one remember some kind-hearted man who showed him a kindness in the days of his childhood?—*Jerrold*.
6. The wise man always throws himself on the side of his assailants.—*Emerson*.
7. Hang around your walls pictures which shall tell stories of mercy, hope, courage, faith, and charity.—*D. G. Mitchell*.
8. Make your living-room the largest and most cheerful in the house.—*D. G. Mitchell*.
9. Those who contract thoughtless and rude habits toward members of their own family will be rude and thoughtless to all the world.—*Silvio Pellico*.
10. While we commend the character and example of Washington to others, let us not forget to imitate it ourselves.—*R. C. Winthrop*.
11. The books which help you most are those which make you think most.—*Theo. Parker*.
12. A man is the happier through life for having once made an agreeable tour or lived for any length of time among pleasant people.—*Sydney Smith*.
13. True, conscious honor is to feel no sin;
 He's armed without that's innocent within.—*Pope*.

14. The stars shall fade away, the sun himself
Grow dim with age, and Nature sink in years;
But thou shalt flourish in immortal youth,
Unhurt amid the war of elements,
The wreck of matter, and the crash of worlds.—*Addison*.
15. Who shall decide when doctors disagree?—*Pope*.
16. Do good by stealth, and blush to find it fame.—*Pope*.
17. Know then this truth, enough for man to know—
Virtue alone is happiness below.—*Pope*.
18. They made her a grave too cold and damp
For a soul so warm and true.—*Moore*.
19. There Honor comes, a pilgrim gray,
To deck the turf that wraps their clay.—*Collins*.

Exercises.

1. Write adjective elements to limit the nouns and the pronouns in the following :

1. —— train leaves for New York. 2. —— clouds float lazily over the meadow. 3. —— friends will come to-morrow. 4. —— birds fly about the meadows. 5. —— pupils are ——. 6. —— sun warms —— earth with —— rays. 7. —— history was presented to us. 8. John, ——, came early —— morning. 9. —— diamond cuts glass. 10. —— men came from the East. 11. —— house —— was destroyed by fire. 12. He —— will learn rapidly. 13. I have lost —— hat. 14. Solomon, ——, was king. 15. We all should have a desire ——. 16. His promise —— was broken. 17. —— horse came down —— street.

2. Write adverbial elements to limit the verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in the following :

1. Mary sings ——. 2. The rose is a —— beautiful flower. 3. Some roses are —— fragrant. 4. The rain is falling —— in the streets. 5. The weather has been —— wet. 6. The works of God are wonderful ——. 7. The boy swam ——. 8. Braddock was defeated ——. 9. Washington retreated ——. 10. The moon was seen ——. 11. The train will arrive ——. 12. We

are all willing _____. 13. It is _____ better for us to go. 14. We shall be _____ pleased to have you remain. 15. America was discovered _____. 16. Deliver us _____. 17. Beauty surrounds us _____. 18. Come _____. 19. Henry studies _____.

3. Write objective elements to limit the transitive verbs in the following:

1. The boy found _____. 2. Having fought _____, we retired.
3. I intend _____. 4. The teacher thought _____. 5. The pupils sang _____. 6. Idle pupils do not love _____. 7. We hope _____. 8. The bell strikes _____. 9. We have _____. 10. Throw _____ to me. 11. Love _____. 12. The runaway horse broke _____. 13. Plant _____ in the garden. 14. Farmers plant _____ in the spring-time. 15. Mother thinks _____. 16. Do you understand _____? 17. Can you explain _____?

Connectives.

The **Connecting parts** of sentences are—

1. *Relative Pronouns*; as, “He who steals my purse, steals trash.”
2. *Conjunctions*; as, “Men should not talk to please themselves, but those who hear them.”
3. *Conjunctive Adverbs*; as, “We will come to see you when he returns.”

Independent Parts.

The **Independent Parts** of sentences neither modify nor connect.

They are—

1. *Nouns and pronouns in the Nominative Case Independent*; as, “My father, must I stay?” “School having been dismissed, we went home,” “Having conquered the enemy, the army retired.” “Fair Greece! sad relic of departed worth! though fallen she is great.”

2. *Interjections*; as, “Alas! his glory has departed.”

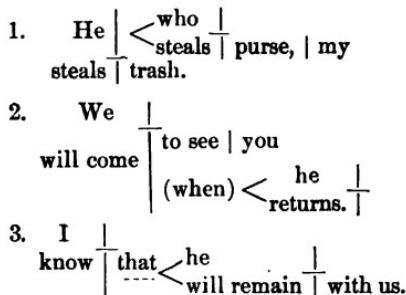
3. *Independent Adverbs*; as,

Yes, the report is certainly true.

There were six of us in the carriage.

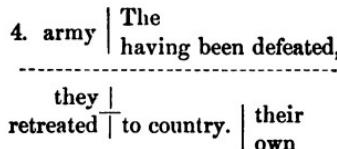
WRITTEN FORMS FOR SENTENCES CONTAINING CONNECTIVES OR
INDEPENDENT PARTS.

1. He who steals my purse, steals trash.
2. We will come to see you when he returns.
3. I know that he will remain with us.
4. The army having been defeated, they retreated to their own country.



Note.—In sentence (2) the conjunctive adverb *when* modifies the verb in both clauses, and is placed in parentheses.

In sentence (3) the dotted line under *that* shows that it simply connects.



Explanation.—The independent part of the sentence is separated from the other by a dotted line.

Exercise.

Name the connectives and the independent parts in the following sentences:

1. Blessed be the hand that prepares a pleasure for a child! for there is no saying when and where it may again bloom forth.—*Jerrold.*
2. Lying is a great sin against God, who gave us a tongue to speak the truth, and not falsehood.—*Sir Matthew Hale.*
3. It is the ancient feeling of the human heart that knowledge is better than riches; and it is deeply and sacredly true.—*Sydney Smith.*

4. None are poorer because others are made rich.—*H. Mann.*
5. The good man is, in his way, the greatest of all artists.—*Victor Cousin.*
6. Experience is the best schoolmaster, but the school-fees are heavy.—*Coleridge.*
7. The greatest man is he who chooses the right with invincible resolution.—*Dr. Channing.*
8. A lie which is all a lie may be met and fought with outright,
But a lie which is half a truth is a harder matter to fight.
Tennyson.
9. Mortals that would follow me,
Love Virtue ; she alone is free.—*Milton.*

Phrases.

A **Phrase** is a combination of two or more words forming a single expression, but not making complete sense.

Phrases with regard to *Form* are—

1. *Prepositional*; as, “*On the hillside*,” “*Over the river*.”
2. *Infinitive*; as, “*We strive to study diligently*.”
3. *Participial*; as, “*Being active*, he will succeed.”

Phrases with regard to *Office* are—

1. *Substantive*; as, “*To do good* is the duty of all.”
2. *Attributive*; as, “*He is in good health*.”
3. *Explanatory*; as, “*It is sweet to die for one's country*.”
4. *Independent*; as, “*Our friend being busy*, we left the room.”

Phrases as *Elements* are—

1. *Adjective*; as, “*He makes no effort to secure the prize*.”
2. *Adverbial*; as, “*Close by the stream* the hut was built.”
3. *Objective*; as, “*Every one preferred to study*.”

Remark.—When the infinitive or the participial phrase is used as the subject, it is called the subject-phrase; as, “*To walk too rapidly* is tiresome.”

Exercise.

Classify the phrases in the following, tell what kind of elements they are, and what they modify :

1. It is faith in something, and enthusiasm for something, that make a life worth looking at.—*Holmes*.

2. If we work upon marble, it will perish; if we work upon brass, time will efface it; if we rear temples, they will crumble into dust.—*Webster*.

3. Hope, only Hope, of all that clings
Around us, never spreads her wings.—*Holmes*.

4. Better for a man to possess manners than wealth, beauty, or talent.—*Lord Lytton*.

5. It is better to inspire the heart with a noble sentiment than to teach the mind a truth of science.—*E. Brooks*.

6. Nature is full of freaks, and now puts an old head on young shoulders, and then a young heart beating under fourscore winters.—*Emerson*.

7. When a deed is done for freedom, through the broad earth's
aching breast

Runs a thrill of joy prophetic, trembling on from east to west.

Lowell.

Clauses.

A **Clause** is a part of a sentence containing a subject and its predicate.

Clauses, with reference to their use and their position in sentences, may be classified as follows :

1. The *Subject Clause* when used as the subject of a sentence ; as, “*That you have wronged me* cannot be denied.”

2. The *Predicate Clause* when used as a predicate nominative ; as, “*My belief is that he will prosper*.”

3. The *Relative Clause* when introduced by a relative pronoun ; as, “*The man who is industrious* will succeed.”

4. The *Appositive Clause* when used in apposition with a noun or a pronoun; as, "The report that the thief has escaped is untrue."

5. The *Adverbial Clause* when used as an adverbial modifier; as, "I shall see him when he comes."

6. The *Object Clause* when used as an objective modifier; as, "They think that you have gone."

Note.—The relative and the appositive clause are used as *adjective* modifiers.

Exercise.

Classify the clauses in the following sentences, tell what kind of elements they are, and what they modify:

1. The savage believed that to every man there is an appointed time to die.—*Bancroft.*

2. Montezuma displayed all the energy and enterprise in the commencement of his reign which had been anticipated from him.—*Prescott.*

3. Bunyan is almost the only writer that ever gave to the abstract the interest of the concrete.—*Macaulay.*

4. We admire the great deeds of Howard's benevolence, and wish that all men were like him.—*Barnes.*

5. One of the illusions is, that the present hour is not the critical, the decisive hour.—*Emerson.*

6. Ye have heard that it hath been said, An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth.—*Bible.*

7. Rivers will always have a shingly shore to play over, where they may be shallow, and foolish, and childlike; and another steep shore, under which they can prance, and purify themselves, and get their strength of waves fully together for due occasion.—*Ruskin.*

8.
 Oh joy! that in our embers
 Is something that doth live—
 That Nature yet remembers
 What was so fugitive!—*Wordsworth.*

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

Sentences may be contracted either by ellipsis or by abridgment.

Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words necessary to complete the sense and construction of the sentence.

The omitted words are said to be *understood*.

Thus, the expression, *Prepare to study* is equivalent to *Do you prepare to study*, or *Prepare you to study*.

In the expression, “Who invented the steam-engine? James Watt,” the answer is equivalent to *James Watt invented the steam-engine*.

Exercise.

Name the omitted words in the following sentences:

1. Stone walls do not a prison make,
Nor iron bars a cage.—*Lovelace*.
2. All nature is but art unknown to thee,
All chance, direction which thou canst not see ;
All discord, harmony not understood ;
All partial evil, universal good.—*Pope*.
3. Reading maketh a full man ; conversation, a ready man ; writing, an exact man.—*Bacon*.
4. For strength is born of struggle, faith of doubt,
Of discord law, and freedom of oppression.—*Bayard Taylor*.
5. We live in deeds, not years ; in thoughts, not breaths ;
In feelings, not in figures on a dial.—*P. J. Bailey*.
6. Knowledge dwells
In heads replete with thoughts of other men ;
Wisdom in minds attentive to their own.—*Couper*.
7. Leaves have their time to fall,
And flowers to wither at the north wind's breath,
And stars to set ; but all,
Thou hast all seasons for thine own, O Death.—*Mrs. Hemans*.

Abridgment.

Sentences may be contracted by abridging clauses to phrases.

Thus, 1. "*I go to school that I may improve*" = *I go to school to improve.*

2. "*When I had finished the letter I took it to the office*" = *Having finished the letter, etc.*

Exercise.

Abridge clauses in the following sentences:

1. I know that he is a faithful officer.
2. When the sun had risen we began our work.
3. A man who is wise will avoid evil.
4. When we heard the storm approaching we began our preparations to return.
5. Speak well of the absent whenever you have a suitable opportunity.
6. When our lessons had been recited the teacher requested us to walk home with him.
7. The farmer while he sat in his easy-chair smoked his pipe of clay.
8. They listened to the speech which the orator made, that they might learn the facts.
9. We claim that all Nature is our own.

Transposition.

In analyzing sentences, elements should be placed in their natural order.

Exercise.

Transpose the elements in the following sentences, so that they may stand in their natural order:

Thus, 1. When the robins came we know not = We know not when the robins came.

2. Nothing useless is, or low.—*Longfellow*.
 3. Each thing in its place is best.—*Longfellow*.
 4. He's true to God who's true to man.—*Lowell*.
 5. How easy it is for one benevolent being to diffuse pleasures all around him!—*Irving*.
 6. In this country every one gets a mouthful of education, but scarcely any one a full meal.—*Parker*.
 7. Westward the course of empire takes its way.—*Berkeley*.
 8. If you would be pungent, be brief.—*Southery*.
-

A N A L Y S I S.

Principles.

In the Analysis of Sentences the following important principles should always be kept in mind :

1. That *Adjective* elements are used to limit *nouns* and *pronouns*;
2. That *Adverbial* elements are used to limit *adjectives*, *verbs*, *participles*, and *adverbs*;
3. That *Objective* elements are used to limit *transitive verbs in the active voice*, when the limiting element represents the object upon which the action terminates;
4. That *Articles*, *Prepositions*, *Conjunctions*, and *Interjections* are not limited.

Remark.—That part of an element which is limited by other words is called the *basis*.

Directions for Analysis.

1. Read the sentence aloud.
2. Tell whether *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*.
3. Tell whether *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, or *exclamatory*.

If a simple sentence—

4. Name the logical subject.
5. Name the simple or grammatical subject.
6. Name and classify the modifiers of the simple subject.
7. Name and classify the modifiers of the modifiers.
8. Name the logical predicate.
9. Name the simple or grammatical predicate.
10. Name and classify the modifiers of the simple predicate.
11. Name and classify the modifiers of the modifiers.
12. Name and analyze the independent parts, if any.

If a complex sentence—

1. Name the principal clause.
2. Name the subordinate clause or clauses.
3. Analyze each clause as in simple sentences.

If a compound sentence—

1. Name the members.
2. Name the connectives.
3. Analyze each member as in simple or complex sentences.

Remark.—1. When analyzing, arrange inverted expressions in their natural order.

2. *Ellipses* may be supplied when necessary to the construction.

Models for Simple Sentences.

1. *Yonder sunset is very beautiful.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. *Yonder sunset* is the logical subject; the simple subject, is *sunset*, which is modified by the adjective element *yonder*; *is very beautiful* is the logical predicate; *is beautiful* is the simple predicate, of which *beautiful* is the attribute, and *is* the copula; *beautiful* is modified by the adverbial element *very*.

2. *A tall waving willow stood in the little meadow.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. *A tall waving willow* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *willow*, which is modified by the adjective elements *a*, *tall*, and *waving*; *stood in the little meadow* is the

logical predicate; the simple predicate is *stood*, which is modified by the adverbial element *in the little meadow*, of which *meadow* is the basis, modified by the adjective elements *the* and *little*.

3. *The gentle rain refreshed the thirsty flowers.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. *The gentle rain* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *rain*, which is modified by the adjective elements *the* and *gentle*; *refreshed the thirsty flowers* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *refreshed*, which is modified by the objective element *the thirsty flowers*, of which the noun *flowers*, the basis, is modified by the adjective elements *the* and *thirsty*.

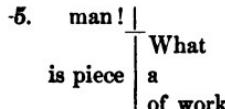
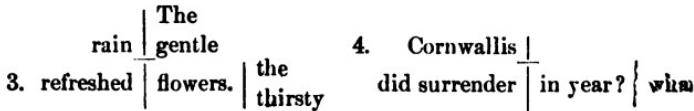
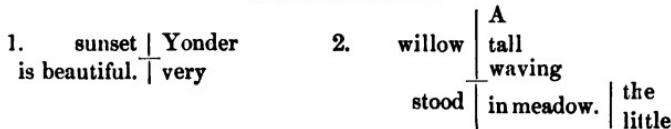
4. *In what year did Cornwallis surrender?*

This is a simple interrogative sentence. The natural order of the sentence is, *Cornwallis did surrender in what year?* *Cornwallis* is the simple subject, and is not modified; *did surrender in what year* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *did surrender*, which is modified by the adverbial element *in what year*, of which *year* is the basis, modified by the adjective element *what*.

5. *What a piece of work is man!*

This is a simple exclamatory sentence. The natural order of the sentence is, *Man is what a piece of work!* *Man* is the simple subject, and is unmodified. *Is what a piece of work* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *is piece*, of which *piece* is the attribute, and *is* the copula; *piece* is modified by the adjective elements *what*, *a*, and *of work*; of the phrase *of work*, the basis, *work*, is unmodified.

WRITTEN FORMS.



Exercise.

Analyze the following simple sentences :

1. Knowledge is power.—*Bacon.*
2. Religion is the most gentlemanly thing in the world.—*Coleridge.*
3. Earnestness alone makes life eternity.—*Carlyle.*
4. Take things always by the smooth handle.—*Jefferson.*
5. The better part of valor is discretion.—*Shakespeare.*
6. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!—*Shakespeare.*
7. The groves were God's first temples.—*Bryant.*
8. Composition is the flowering out of a man's mind.—*Mrs. Stowe.*
9. Self-trust is the essence of heroism.—*Emerson.*
10. Westward the course of empire takes its way.—*Berkeley.*
11. An effort made for the happiness of others lifts us above ourselves.—*Mrs. Child.*
12. Leisure is time for doing something useful.—*Franklin.*
13. The strength of a nation is in the intelligent and well-ordered homes of its people.—*Mrs. Sigourney.*
14. How the universal heart of man blesses flowers!—*Mrs. Child.*
15. In character, in manners, in style, in all things, the supreme excellence is simplicity.—*Longfellow.*
16. Education is the cheap defence of nations.—*Burke.*
17. The true university of these days is a collection of books.—*Carlyle.*
18. Beauty itself is but the sensible image of the infinite.—*Bancroft.*
19. Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne
In rayless majesty now stretches forth
Her leaden sceptre o'er a slumbering world.—*Young.*
20. The splendor falls on castle-walls
And snowy summits old in story.—*Tennyson.*
21. Among the pitfalls in our way
The best of us walk blindly.—*Alice Cary.*
22. The cure of an evil tongue must be done at the heart.—*Leighton.*
23. Politeness is not always a sign of wisdom.—*Landor.*

24. Education should bring to mind the ideal of the individual.—*Richter.*

25. An investment in knowledge always pays the best interest.—*Franklin.*

26. True politeness is the spirit of benevolence showing itself in a refined way.—*H. W. Beecher.*

27. The end of learning is to know God, and out of that knowledge to love Him and to imitate Him.—*Milton.*

28. The chief art of learning is to attempt but little at a time.—*Locke.*

29. The spacious firmament on high,
 With all the blue ethereal sky,
 And spangled heavens, a shining frame,
 Their great Original proclaim.—*Addison.*

Models for Complex Sentences.

1. *When the speaker had finished the audience retired.*

This is a complex declarative sentence. The principal clause is *the audience retired*, and the subordinate clause, *when the speaker had finished*. Of the principal clause, *the audience* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *audience*, which is modified by the adjective element *the*; *retired* *when the speaker had finished* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *retired*, which is modified by the adverbial element *when the speaker had finished*. Of the subordinate clause, *the speaker* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *speaker*, which is modified by the adjective element *the*; *had finished* is the simple predicate, modified by the adverbial element *when*.

2. *Them that honor me I will honor.*

This is a complex declarative sentence. The principal clause is *I will honor them*, and the subordinate, *that honor me*. Of the principal clause, *I* is the simple subject, unmodified; *will honor them* *that honor me* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *will honor*, which is modified by the objective element *them that honor me*; *them*, the basis, is modified by the adjective element *that honor me*. Of the subordinate clause, *that* is the simple subject unmodified; *honor me* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *honor*, which is modified by the objective element *me*.

3. That we shall succeed is now certain.

This is a complex declarative sentence. The entire sentence is the principal clause, and *that we shall succeed* is the subordinate. Of the principal clause, *That we shall succeed* is the simple subject unmodified; *is now certain* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *certain*, of which *certain* is the attribute, and *is* the copula; *certain* is modified by the adverbial element *now*. Of the subordinate clause, *we* is the simple subject unmodified, and *shall succeed* is the simple predicate unmodified.

4. Do you think we shall have a pleasant time if we go?

This is a complex interrogative sentence, of which *Do you think* is the principal clause, and *we shall have a pleasant time* and *if we go* are subordinate clauses.

Of the principal clause, *you* is the simple subject unmodified; *do think we shall have a pleasant time* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *do think*, which is modified by the objective element *we shall have a pleasant time*.

Of the first subordinate clause, *we* is the simple subject unmodified, and *shall have a pleasant time* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *shall have*, which is modified by the objective element *a pleasant time* and the adverbial element *if we go*; *time*, the basis of the objective element, is modified by the adjective elements *a* and *pleasant*.

Of the second subordinate clause, *we* is the simple subject unmodified, and *go* is the simple predicate unmodified; *if* is a connective joining the two subordinate clauses.

WRITTEN FORMS.

1. audience | the
retired. | When < speaker
had finished, + the

2. I |
will honor | them < that | honor + me.

3. That we |
shall succeed |
is certain. now

4. you |
Do think | < we
shall have | time | a
pleasant
if < we
go ?

Exercise.

Analyze the following complex sentences :

1. Tears are the softening showers which cause the seed of heaven to spring up in the human heart.—*Scott.*
2. I believe the first test of a truly great man is in his humility.—*Ruskin.*
3. God helps them that help themselves.—*Franklin.*
4. Nothing is troublesome that we do willingly.—*Jefferson.*
5. The best part of our knowledge is that which teaches us where knowledge leaves off and ignorance begins.—*Holmes.*
6. I hold that Christian grace abounds
Where charity is seen.—*Alice Cary.*
7. One sweetly solemn thought
Comes to me o'er and o'er—
That I'm nearer my home to-day
Than I've ever been before.—*Phoebe Cary.*
8. Man is the jewel of God, who has created this material world to keep His treasure in.—*Parker.*
9. He prayeth best who loveth best
All things, both great and small.—*Coleridge.*
10. They are never alone that are accompanied by noble thoughts.—*Sir Philip Sidney.*
11. He struck a blow in the world that resounded through the universe.—*Grattan.*
12. Beauty is the mark God sets on virtue.—*Emerson.*
13. The books which help you most are those which make you think most.—*Parker.*
14. Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,
Our hearts in glad surprise
To higher levels rise.—*Longfellow.*
15. No man who needs a monument ever ought to have one.—*Hawthorne.*
16. Modesty seldom resides in a breast that is not enriched with nobler virtues.—*Goldsmith.*

17. The eternal stars shine out as soon as it is dark enough.—*Carlyle*.

18. No one who has once heartily and wholly laughed can be altogether irreclaimably depraved.—*Carlyle*.

19. This is truth the poet sings,
That a sorrow's crown of sorrow is remembering happier things.—*Tennyson*.

20. Cursed be the social lies that warp us from the living truth.—*Tennyson*.

21. Knowledge and timber should not be much used until they are seasoned.—*Holmes*.

22. How blessings brighten as they take their flight!—*Young*.

23. The poorest education that teaches self-control is better than the best that neglects it.—*Sterling*.

24. The Sabbath is the golden clasp which binds together the volume of the week.—*Longfellow*.

Models for Compound Sentences.

1. *We must fight, or our liberties are lost.*

This is a compound declarative sentence. *We must fight* is the first member, and *our liberties are lost* is the second; *or* is a co-ordinate conjunction connecting the two members. Of the first member, *we* is the simple subject unmodified, and *must fight* is the simple predicate unmodified. Of the second member, *our liberties* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *liberties*, which is modified by the adjective element *our*; *are lost* is the simple predicate unmodified.

2. *The woods are hushed, the waters rest,
The lake is dark and still.*

This is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of the three members, *The woods are hushed*, *the waters rest*, and *the lake is dark and still*. Of the first member, *The woods* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *woods*, which is modified by the adjective element *the*; *are hushed* is the simple predicate unmodified. Of the second member, *the waters* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *waters*, which is modified by the adjective element *the*; *rest* is the simple predicate unmodified. Of the third member, *the lake* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *lake*, which is modified by the adjective

element *the*; *is dark and still* is the simple predicate, of which the attribute *dark and still* is compound.

3. *When he rose, every sound was hushed; and when he spoke, every eye was fixed upon him.*

This is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of the two members, *every sound was hushed when he rose*, and *every eye was fixed upon him when he spoke*. Each member is complex. The first member consists of the principal clause, *every sound was hushed*; and the subordinate clause, *when he rose*.

Of the principal clause, *every sound* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *sound*, which is modified by the adjective element *every*; *was hushed when he rose* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *was hushed*, which is modified by the adverbial element *when he rose*.

Of the subordinate clause, *he* is the simple subject unmodified; the simple predicate is *rose*, which is modified by the adverbial element *when*.

The second member consists of the principal proposition, *every eye was fixed upon him*, and the subordinate proposition, *when he spoke*.

Of the principal proposition, *every eye* is the logical subject; the simple subject is *eye*, which is modified by the adjective element *every*; *was fixed upon him when he spoke* is the logical predicate; the simple predicate is *was fixed*, which is modified by the adverbial elements *upon him* and *when he spoke*.

Of the subordinate proposition, *he* is the simple subject unmodified; and *spoke* is the simple predicate, modified by the adverbial element *when*.

WRITTEN FORMS.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. We
must fight,
or
liberties our
are lost. | 2. woods The
are hushed,
waters the
rest,
lake The
dark
and
still. |
|---|--|

3. sound | every
 was hushed | When < he |
 and |
 eye | every
 was fixed | upon him.
 when < he |
 spoke, |

Exercise.

Analyze the following compound sentences :

1. In peace, Love tunes the shepherd's reed ;
 In war he mounts the warrior's steed ;
 In halls in gay attire is seen,
 In hamlets, dances on the green.
 Love rules the court, the camp, the grove,
 And men below, and gods above ;
 For love is heaven, and heaven is love.—*Scott.*
2. Little minds are tamed and subdued by misfortune, but great minds rise above it.—*Irving.*
3. Every promise of the soul has innumerable fulfillments ; each of its joys ripens into a new want.—*Emerson.*
4. Be not ashamed of thy virtues ; honor is a good brooch to wear in a man's hat at all times.—*Ben Jonson.*
5. You hear that boy laughing ? You think he's all fun,
 But the angels laugh too at the good he has done ;
 The children laugh loud as they trip at his call,
 And the poor man that knows him laughs loudest of all.
Holmes.
6. Now came still evening on, and Twilight gray
 Had in her sober livery all things clad.—*Milton.*
7. The accusing spirit which flew up to Heaven's chancery with the oath, blushed as he gave it in ; and the recording angel, as he wrote it down, dropped a tear upon the word and blotted it out for ever.—*Sterne.*
8. God's livery is a very plain one, but its wearers have good reason to be content.—*Lowell.*

9. Method is the hinge of business, and there is no method without order and punctuality.—*Hannah More*.

10. The proper study of mankind is man;
The most perplexing one, no doubt, is woman.—*Saxe*.

Directions for Written Analysis.

The following directions, if carefully followed, will be of great service in diagramming or analyzing sentences by writing.

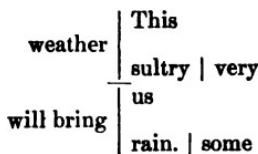
1. Place the subject and the predicate to the *left* of a perpendicular line, the former above and the latter below.

Thus:



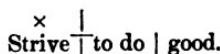
2. Place modifiers to the *right* of the words which they modify.

Thus:



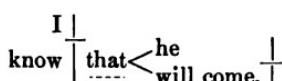
3. Words understood may be represented by a ×.

Thus:



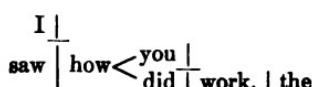
4. Place a dotted line under connectives not used to modify.

Thus:



5. Write connectives used to modify, without the dotted line.

Thus:



6. When a connective modifies words in two clauses, enclose it in marks of parenthesis.

Thus:

I
shall remain | (till) < you |
come. |

7. Represent clause modifiers as in the examples under directions 4, 5, and 6.

8. When a phrase is modified join its parts by an inverted caret, and this with the modifier by a horizontal line.

Thus:

They |
rowed | across river. | the
|
| almost

Note.—The word *the* modifies *river*, and *almost* modifies the phrase.

9. Join the parts of a compound element by oblique lines.

Thus:

```

graph LR
    A[Exercise  
and  
temperance] --- B[strengthen]
    B --- C[body  
and  
mind]
  
```

10. Separate the members of compound sentences by a short dotted line, as in Examples 1, 2, 3, pages 152, 153.

11. Place dotted lines beneath relative conjunctions.

Thus:

```

graph TD
    A[Both] --- B[You  
and  
John]
    B --- C[can go]
    C --- D[to-morrow]
  
```

12. Place independent parts above the sentence, with a dotted line beneath.

Thus:

Friends, Romans, countrymen !

```

graph TD
    A[Friends, Romans, countrymen !] --- B[lend  
me  
ears.  
your]
  
```

13. Place a dotted line beneath introductory words not modifying.

Thus :

Well, you have come at last!

14. Join factitives to the predicate.

15. When a word is in apposition with a clause, place a bracket after the clause.

Thus:

You [] confession [a
were silent [on point, | that] clear
of guilt.

General Exercises.

Sentences for Analysis.

1. Green be the turf above thee,
Friend of my better days!
None knew thee but to love thee,
None named thee but to praise.—*Halleck.*
 2. Education is a better safeguard of liberty than a standing army.
—*Everett.*
 3. Lives of great men all remind us
We may make our lives sublime,
And, departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time.—*Longfellow.*
 4. But words are things ; and a small drop of ink,
Falling like dew upon a thought, produces
That which makes thousands, perhaps millions, think.—*Byron.*
 5. 'Twas in autumn, and stormy and dark was the night,
And fast were the windows and doors.—*Southern.*
 6. He is worthy of honor who willeth the good of every man ; and
he is much unworthy thereof who seeketh his own profit and op-
presseth others.—*Cicero.*

7. The more we live, more brief appear
 Our life's succeeding stages;
 A day to childhood seems a year,
 And years like passing ages.—*Campbell*.

8. The widest excursions of the mind are made by short flights, • frequently repeated.—*Locke*.

9. I know not what course others may take; but, as for me, give me liberty or give me death!—*Patrick Henry*.

10. We live in an age in which cultivated mind is becoming more and more the controlling influence in affairs.—*Everett*.

11. The contemplation of beauty in nature, in art, in literature, in human character, diffuses through our being a soothing and subtle joy by which the heart's anxious and aching cares are softly smiled away.—*Whipple*.

12. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
 The dark, unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
 Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
 And waste its sweetness on the desert air.—*Gray*.

13. When all thy mercies, O my God,
 My rising soul surveys,
 Transported with the view I'm lost
 In wonder, love, and praise.—*Addison*.

14. If I were not a preacher, I know of no profession on earth of which I should be fonder than that of a preceptor.—*Luther*.

15. He who will determine against that which he knows, because there may be something which he knows not, is not to be admitted among reasonable beings.—*Dr. Johnson*.

16. Ah, that deceit should steal such gentle shapes,
 And with a virtuous visor hide deep her vice!—*Shakespeare*.

17. Nothing is proof against the general curse
 Of vanity that seizes all below;
 The only amaranthine flower on earth
 Is virtue; the only lasting treasure, truth.—*Cowper*.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

Subject of a Finite Verb.

RULE I.—*The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case.*

Remarks.

1. Any word, phrase, or clause that may be used as a noun or a pronoun may be the subject of a proposition; as, “*John sings*,” “*We walk*,” “*To lie is wicked*,” “*That he will come* is now certain.”

2. A *finite verb* is one limited by person and number, to distinguish it from the infinitive, which is not thus limited.

3. The subject of the verb in the imperative mode is generally omitted; as, “*Do good*,” “*Strive to excel*,” “*Bring me the basket*.”

In such cases the verb may be parsed as agreeing with *thou* or *you*, understood.

4. A verb may have several subjects in the same sentence; as, “*John, James, and William have come*.”

5. The subject usually precedes the verb, but it is sometimes placed after the verb or the auxiliary; as, “*Great is Diana*,” “*Were he prudent he would remain*,” “*Shall we go?*” “*Why do you tarry?*”

Cautions.

1. The objective form should not be used as the subject of a finite verb.

2. A noun and a pronoun representing it should not be used as subjects of the same verb.

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*He has more books than me.*

The sentence is incorrect, because *me*, a pronoun having the objective form, is used as the subject; the nominative form *I* should be substituted, according to *Rule I., Caution 1.*

1. Him and me were absent. 2. I am taller than him. 3. Them that believe in me shall be rewarded. 4. I am not so good a writer as him. 5. They look quite as well as us. 6. The whole need not a physician, but them that are sick. 7. Them are not the ones I bought. 8. The teacher said that John and me knew our lessons. 9. I love them that love me, and them that seek me early shall find me. 10. Here is the lad whom we think gained the prize. 11. The boy, he and his brother came. 12. Who is there? Me.

13. Tell me, in sadness, whom is she you love.—*Shakespeare*.

14. Do not think such a man as me contemptible for my garb.—*Addison*.

15. You are a much greater loser than me by his death.—*Swift*.

16. The Jesuits had more interests at court than him.—*Smollett*.

17. Them that honor me I will honor; and them that despise me shall be lightly esteemed.—*1 Samuel 2:30*.

18. A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty, but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both.—*Bible*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the subjects:

1. To persevere in one's duty and to be silent is the best answer to calumny.—*Washington*.

2. Men are but children of a larger growth.—*Dryden*.

3. Charms strike the sight, but merit wins the soul.—*Pope*.

4. All are but parts of one stupendous whole,
Whose body Nature is, and God the soul.—*Pope*.

5. When vice prevails and impious men bear sway,
The post of honor is the private station.—*Addison*.

6. To read without reflecting is like eating without digesting.—*Burke*.

7. How beautiful is night!
A dewy freshness fills the silent air,
No mist obscures, nor cloud, nor speck, nor stain
Breaks the serene of heaven.—*Southey*.

8. If fun is good, truth is better, and love best of all.—*Thackeray*.

9. As concerns the quantity of what is to be read, there is a single rule: Read much, but not many works.—*Sir W. Hamilton.*

Possessive Case.

RULE II.—*A noun or a pronoun used to limit another by denoting possession is in the possessive case.*

Remarks.

1. The idea expressed by the possessive may be denoted by a preposition and its object; as, “*Winter's* cold blasts” = The cold blasts of *winter*; “*Boys'* hats made here” = Hats for *boys* made here.

These two modes of expression are, however, not always equivalent. Thus, “The child's picture” may mean either the picture of the child or one belonging to him.

2. The possessive, since it always limits a noun, is an adjective element.

3. The word limited by the possessive is sometimes omitted; as, “The cloth was bought at Johnson's” (store). In parsing the possessive in such cases it should be parsed as limiting the noun understood.

4. When a noun or a pronoun is put in apposition with another in the possessive case, the possessive sign may be omitted; as, “*His* success as a *teacher* has been remarkable.”

5. Compound words are sometimes formed by the union of the possessive and the noun limited; as, *ratsbane*, *adder's-tongue*, etc. When the meaning is *literal* the apostrophe is omitted; as, *ratsbane*, *tradesman*, *doomsday*.

When the meaning is *metaphorical* the apostrophe is retained; as, *Job's-tears*, *adder's-tongue*, *wolf's-bane*, *bear's-foot*, *hound's-tongue*—names of plants.

When the compound term is used as an adjective the sign is also retained; as, “A *camel's-hair* shawl,” “*Neat's-foot* oil,” “A *bird's-eye* view.”

Cautions.

1. In writing the possessive of nouns always affix the possessive sign to the nominative form; as, "A boy's hat," "The boys' hats," "For conscience' sake."

2. In writing the possessive of pronouns no possessive sign should be used; as, "The book is *yours*" (not *your's*).

3. In complex nouns the sign of the possessive is affixed to the last word of the name; as, "*Sir Walter Scott's Tales of a Grandfather*."

When the last word of a complex title is in the objective case, it is preferable to express the idea of possession by means of a preposition and its object: thus, instead of "*The queen of England's possessions*," say, "*The possessions of the queen of England*."

4. When two or more connected nouns in the possessive denote joint ownership, the possessive sign should be affixed to the last only. Thus, "*Ferdinand and Isabella's reign*," meaning one reign; "*Woodruff & Newlin's store*," meaning one store.

5. When two or more connected nouns in the possessive denote separate ownership, the possessive sign should be affixed to each. Thus, "*Woodruff's and Newlin's house*" means *Woodruff's house* and *Newlin's house*. Also, "*Woodruff's and Newlin's houses*," means *Woodruff's houses* and *Newlin's houses*, the noun *houses* being understood after each possessive sign except the last.

6. When several words occur between two nouns denoting joint ownership, the sign of the possessive is affixed to each of the nouns in the possessive case; as, "We gained our father's, as well as our mother's, consent." The noun *consent* is understood after the first possessive sign.

7. When a noun in the possessive has one or more nouns in apposition, the sign is affixed to that only which immediately precedes the noun limited; as, "David the *psalmist's* reign," "The work is *Irving's*, the author of the 'Sketch Book.'"

8. The possessive should not be separated from the limited word by an explanatory clause. Thus, "We believed the mas-

ter's, as we called him, rules to be proper," should be "We believed the rules of the master, as we called him, to be proper."

9. When the possessive limits a participial noun or a participle used as a noun, the possessive form should be used. Thus say, "Have you any objections to *my* going?"—not *me* going. Also, "Our teacher's cheering us gave us encouragement," instead of "Our teacher cheering us," etc.

10. When an adjective belonging to a noun in the possessive case follows the noun, the sign is affixed to the adjective, so as to place it immediately before the modified noun; as, "This is somebody else's work."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*Grant and Lee's armies were disbanded.*

The sentence is incorrect, because separate possession or ownership is here denoted; hence, according to *Rule II.*, *Caution 5*, the possessive sign should be used after each noun, *Grant* and *Lee*.

1. The war occurred in William's and Mary's reign. 2. The book is mine and nobody's else. 3. I will not destroy the city for ten sake. 4. Your's is a pronoun. 5. Jamison's and Thompson's store was destroyed. 6. Jamison and Thompson's store were destroyed. 7. My sister as well as my brother's visit was anticipated. 8. We have no objection to you reading. 9. There is nothing to prevent us going. 10. Much depends on the teacher explaining clearly. 11. My servant's wife's brother is ill.

12. The State Teacher's Association meets in August. 13. My two brother-in-laws' houses were robbed. 14. Mices' fur is soft. 15. Paul's the apostle's letter to the Romans. 16. Which was greater evidence of pride, Platos fine garments or Diogenes tub? 17. Is that a thrush or a robin's nest? 18. Mary and John's father's were not relatives. 19. There is no danger of the dog biting you. 20. Others good may be ours.

21. Their healths perhaps may be pretty well secured.—*Locke.*

22. And love's and friendship's finely-pointed dart
Falls blunted from each indurated heart.—*Goldsmith.*

23. The general in the army's name published a declaration.—*Hume.*

24. He pointed out the difficulty of counsel doing justice without preparation.—*Lord Campbell*.

25. There are all reasons for suspicion falling on him.—*Dickens*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the possessives:

1. For thou art Freedom's now, and Fame's—
One of the few, the immortal names
That were not born to die.—*Halleck*.
2. Be just and fear not.
Let all the ends thou aimst at be thy country's,
Thy God's, and truth's.—*Shakespeare*.
3. An atheist's laugh's a poor exchange for Deity offended.—*Burns*
4. I dread thee, Fate, relentless and severe,
With all a poet's, husband's, father's fear.—*Burns*.
5. Tired Nature's sweet restorer, balmy sleep.—*Young*.
6. Ye are Christ's, and Christ is God's.—*St. Paul*.
7. Each thinks his own the best pretension.—*Gray*.
8. There is something in their hearts which passes speech.—*Story*.
9. Land of the beautiful and brave,
The freeman's home, the martyr's grave,
The nursery of giant men,
Whose deeds are linked with every glen !
My own green land for ever !—*Whittier*.
10. It is a noble faculty of our nature which enables us to connect
our thoughts, our sympathies, and our happiness with what is distant
in place or time.—*Webster*.

Object of a Transitive Verb.

RULE III.—*The object of a transitive verb in the active voice is in the objective case.*

Remarks.

1. Participles of transitive verbs in the active voice are followed by the objective case; as, “*Seeing us*, he remained.”

2. A verb may be followed by several objects; as, "Honor thy *father* and thy *mother*."

3. The object of a transitive verb may be any word, phrase, or clause used as a noun; as, "We like *reading*," "We like *to read*," "We know that *he who studies will improve*."

4. Some transitive verbs may have two objects, one denoting some person or thing, and the other that which the object is made to be, either in fact or thought; as, "They elected Washington president."

The first of these objects is called the *direct* object, and the second the *adative* object, from *facere*, "to make."

The principal verbs followed by two objects are—*choose, elect, appoint, constitute, name, call, render, esteem, consider, reckon*.

5. Some transitive verbs may be followed by two objects, the first being object of a preposition understood, and the second the object of the verb; as, "They gave *me* some *money*." The latter is called the direct, and the former the indirect, object.

When the preposition is expressed, the indirect object follows the direct; as, "They gave some money to me."

6. In the passive voice the direct object becomes the subject; as, "Some *money* was given to me."

7. The indirect object is by some writers made the subject of the verb in the passive voice; as, "He was asked his opinion." The propriety of this usage is, however, doubtful. A better form for the sentence is, "His opinion was asked." In sentences such as "I was taught grammar," there is an ellipsis between the verb *taught* and the word *grammar*. Thus, "I was taught (in) grammar."

8. Intransitive verbs used in a transitive sense are followed by an object; as, "He runs a *race*," "The jockey trots his *horse*," "The brooks ran *nectar*."

Cautions.

1. A preposition should not be placed between a transitive verb in the active voice and its object. Thus, "They would not allow of our presence" should be "They would not allow our presence."

2. Verbs that do not admit an object should not be used transitively. Thus, "Some of the states grow rice" should be "Some of the states cultivate (or raise) rice."

3. Avoid, wherever possible, making the indirect object of the verb its subject in the passive voice. Thus, instead of "I was presented a cane," say, "A cane was presented to me."

4. The object should not be separated from the verb by an explanatory phrase or clause. Thus, instead of "He could not try, for the want of proper apparatus, the experiment," say, "For the want of proper apparatus he could not try the experiment."

5. When a noun or a pronoun is used as the object of both a verb and a preposition, the object should be placed after the verb, and a pronoun representing the noun should follow the preposition. Thus, instead of "He formed and then put into execution his plans," say, "He formed his plans, and then put them into execution."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—Who did they invite?

The sentence is incorrect, because *who*, the nominative form of the pronoun, is used in the objective; *whom*, the objective form, should be substituted, according to *Rule III.*

1. Who did he call? 2. Tell me who you saw. 3. He was presented a book. 4. Please let Henry and I go for some water. 5. Vain pomp and glory of this world, I hate ye. 6. I help whosoever I please. 7. They would not permit of our speaking to the driver. 8. The man who we saw perished in the snow. 9. He shot at and killed the bird. 10. I was preached a sermon. 11. He that is idle and mischievous we must dismiss. 12. Unfortunately, I was denied the favor. 13. Who do you think I met the other day?

14. He loves he knows not who.—*Addison.*

15. Let them the state defend, and he adorn.—*Cowley.*

16. But first I must show who I mean by the government.—*Benton.*

17. Who should I meet but my old friend.—*Steele.*

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the objectives:

1. If we retrench the wages of the schoolmaster, we must raise those of the recruiting sergeant.—*Everett.*
2. A guileful heart makes a guileful tongue and lips.—*Leighton.*
3. He who waits to do a great deal of good at once will never do anything.—*Dr. Johnson.*
4. I pray the prayer of Plato old :
God make thee beautiful within,
And let thine eyes the good behold
In everything save sin.—*Whittier.*
5. Put not your trust in money, but put your money in trust.—*Holmes.*
6. If you are about to strive for your life, take with you a stout heart and a clear conscience, and trust the rest to God.—*Cooper.*
7. True happiness had no localities,
No tones provincial, no peculiar garb.—*Pollok.*
8. He that filches from me my good name,
Robs me of that which not enriches him,
And makes me poor indeed.—*Shakespeare.*
9. Lorenzo, these are thoughts that make man man.—*Young.*
10. He returned a friend who came a foe.—*Pope.*

Nominative Case Independent.

RULE IV.—A noun or a pronoun used independently or absolutely is in the nominative case.

Remarks.

1. A noun or a pronoun is said to be used independently—
(a.) When it represents a person or a thing addressed; as,
“*Children, obey your parents,*” “*O Death, where is thy sting?*
O Grave, where is thy victory?”
- (b.) When it is used in exclamation; as, “*Delightful task!*
to rear the tender thought,” “*Those evening bells!* how many
a tale their music tells!”

(c.) When by pleonasm the attention is directed to an object before anything is said of it; as, "Gad, a troop shall overcome him," "Thy *rod* and thy *staff*, they comfort me."

Note.—Nouns and pronouns used in the three preceding ways are said to be in the *nominative case independent* by *address*, by *exclamation*, and by *pleonasm*.

2. A noun or a pronoun is said to be used *absolutely*—

(a.) When it is placed before a participle as the subject of an abridged clause; as, "The *class* having recited, the school was dismissed."

(b.) When it is used after an infinitive or a participle of a copulative verb as part of an abridged proposition; as, "To be a great *scholar* was his ambition," "His being a great *scholar* was to his advantage."

Note.—Nouns or pronouns used absolutely are said to be in the *nominative case absolute*.

3. The nominative preceding the participle is sometimes omitted; as, "Admitting his arguments, is the question answered?" that is, "We admitting," etc.

4. In the absolute construction the participle is sometimes omitted; as, "The war at an end, peace was proclaimed;" that is, "The war being at an end," etc.

5. Some grammarians consider such expressions as the headings of chapters, the titles of books, the names on signs, etc., as being in the nominative case independent. Thus, *Orthography*.—*Cautions*.—*Webster's Dictionary*.—*Drug-store*.—*Brown's store*.

Caution.

The objective form should not be used for the nominative independent.

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*Me being away, the book was lost.*

The sentence is incorrect, because the objective form *me* is used instead of the nominative *I*.

1. Him being young, they deceived him. 2. Your yielding to his demands, we were defeated. 3. Her helping us, we must succeed. 4. Him that hath ears to hear, let him hear.

5. But him, the chieftain of them all,
His sword hangs rusting on the wall.
6. Them having been disappointed, we returned home.
7. Your being absent, we could not proceed.
8. And her, the sportive, guileless forest-maid,
Where is she now? Ah! ask the flowers that fade.
9. There all thy gifts and graces we display,
Thee, only Thee, directing all our way.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the independent nouns and pronouns.

1. Friends, Romans, countrymen! lend me your ears.—*Shakespeare.*
2. Those evening bells! those evening bells!
How many a tale their music tells!—*Moore.*
3. Her wheel at rest, the matron thrills no more
With treasured tales and legendary lore.—*Rogers.*
4. His praise, ye winds that from four quarters blow,
Breathe soft or loud, and wave your tops, ye pines.—*Milton.*
5. I being in the way, the Lord led me to the house of my master's brethren.—*Bible.*
6. A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!—*Shakespeare.*
7. Plato, thou reasonest well.—*Addison.*
8. O thou that rollest above, round as the shield of my fathers,
whence are thy beams, O sun?—*Ossian.*
9. O Caledonia! stern and wild,
Meet nurse for a poetic child!
Land of the brown heath and shaggy wood,
Land of the mountain and the flood,
Land of my sires! What mortal hand
Can e'er untie the filial band
That knits me to thy rugged strand?—*Scott.*

10. My friends, do they now and then send
A wish or a thought after me?—*Cowper*.
11. Thou too sail on, O ship of State!
Sail on, O Union, strong and great!—*Longfellow*.

Object of a Preposition.

RULE V.—*The object of a preposition is in the objective case.*

Remarks.

1. The object of a preposition may be—
 - (a.) A participial noun; as, “We are engaged in *selling* goods.”
 - (b.) A verb in the infinitive mode; as, “They were about *to leave*.”
 - (c.) An adverb; as, “Wait till *then*”—that is, “*that time*.”
 - (d.) A phrase; as, “He ran from *under the shed*.”
 - (e.) A clause; as, “The result depends upon *who does the work*.”

In each of the foregoing cases the word, phrase, or clause is used as a noun.
2. A preposition may be followed by several objects; as, “He gave advice to *friend* and *foe*.”
3. The pronouns *whom* and *which* are sometimes placed before the preposition of which they are the objects; as, “Which did you refer to?” It is better, however, to place them after the preposition; as, “To which did you refer?”
4. The noun or the pronoun in the objective case after a preposition is said to be governed by the preposition.
5. The objective case is used after the adjective *worth*, and sometimes after *like*, *near*, and *nigh*, without a preposition expressed; as, “He is like me,” “The tree is near the house,” “My hat is worth a dollar.”

Cautions.

1. When a noun or a pronoun is the object of two or more prepositions, it should follow the first preposition, and a pronoun representing it should be placed after the second. Thus, instead of "He spoke in favor of, but voted against, the measure," say, "He spoke in favor of the measure, but voted against it."
2. The pronouns *whom* and *which* should follow rather than precede the preposition of which they are the objects.
3. The preposition with its object should be placed as near as possible to the word which they together modify. Thus, instead of "They were watching me, as I came in, with eager eyes," say, "They were watching me with eager eyes as I came in."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—Who did you ask for?

The sentence is incorrect, because *who*, the nominative form, is used as the object of the preposition *for*; the objective *whom* should be substituted, according to Rule V.

1. Who did you speak to? 2. This is the house which we live in.
3. None but the teacher and I were present. 4. We rode to and walked from the city.
5. We bestow our kindness on whosoever we please.
6. She spoke to him and I.
7. Between you and I, that is not true.
8. The proposed journey to a new world kept me awake nights.
9. We found the book on this side the street.
10. From whence did the noise seem to come?

11. To poor we, thine enmity is most capital.—*Shakespeare*.
12. I cannot tell who to compare them to.—*Bunyan*.
13. Who was it from? and what was it about?—*Day*.
14. All debts are cleared between you and I.—*Shakespeare*.
15. So you must ride on horseback after we.—*Cowper*.
16. This life has joys for you and I,
 And joys that riches ne'er could buy.—*Burns*.
17. My son is to be married to I don't know who.—*Goldsmit*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the objectives:

1. There is no policy like politeness.—*Lord Lytton*.
2. Every great man is always being helped by everybody, for his gift is to get good out of all things and all persons.—*Ruskin*.
3. When Freedom from her mountain-height
 Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
 And set the stars of glory there.—*Drake*.
4. Overhead the dismal hiss
 Of fiery darts in flaming volleys flew.—*Milton*.
5. The window jingled in its crumbled frame,
 And through its many gaps of destitution
Dolorous moans and hollow sighings came,
 Like those of dissolution.—*Hood*.
6. Alike for feast and fight prepared,
Battle and banquet both they shared.—*Scott*.
7. At his touch crowns crumbled, beggars reigned, systems vanished.—*Phillips*.
8. Soldiers! from yonder pyramids forty generations of men look down upon you.—*Bonaparte*.
9. The bell strikes one. We take no note of time but from its loss.
 Young.
10. Presently the brook came to a spot where men had thrown hard stones in its way, obstructed its course, turned it aside through a narrow channel, and forced it to rush in a confused, perilous way over a wheel.—*Conway*.

Apposition.

RULE VI.—A noun or a pronoun joined to another for the sake of explanation or emphasis is in the same case.

Note.—This is sometimes called the *same case by apposition*.

Remarks.

1. When several proper names of the same object are joined so as to make but one name, they are parsed together as a *complex noun*; as, "*Thomas Jefferson*," "*General Ethan Allen*."

2. A noun may be put in apposition with a sentence; as, "*Pay as you go*, his business *rule*, was posted over the door."

Sometimes a sentence is put in apposition with a noun; as, "*His rule, Pay as you go, was always observed*."

3. The noun in apposition usually stands last, though sometimes first. Thus, "*As an author he is much read*."

4. A plural term is sometimes put in apposition with several nouns or pronouns preceding, for the sake of emphasis; as, "*Money, friends, influence,—all are gone*."

5. Distributive pronouns are sometimes put in apposition with a plural noun or pronoun; as, "*They struck each other*" —that is, "*They each struck the other*," *each* being in apposition with *they*.

6. The proper name of an object may be put in apposition with the common name; as, "*The poet Burns*," "*The river Delaware*," "*The steamer Ironsides*."

Sometimes the common name is put in apposition with the proper; as, "*Burns the poet*," "*Clay the statesman*."

7. *As* is sometimes followed by a noun denoting rank, office, employment, etc., which is taken in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun; as, "*His work as a teacher* was highly appreciated."

8. The explanatory term, when it is an equivalent, is sometimes introduced by the conjunction *or*; as, "*Arithmetic, or the science of number, is an important study*."

Cautions.

1. Nouns or pronouns in apposition must agree in *case*, though not necessarily in *person, number, and gender*.

2. When a noun is in apposition with a pronoun in the possessive the sign of the possessive is omitted; as, "*Gray's 'Elegy in a Country Churchyard'* is one of his best works as a *poet*."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*John, him whom we visited, is a farmer.*

The sentence is incorrect, because *him*, an objective form, is used in the same case as *John*, which is in the nominative. The nominative form *he* should be substituted, according to *Rule VI, Caution 1.*

1. Mary, Queen of Scots, her who was beheaded, was one of England's queens.
2. I admire Milton, he who wrote "Paradise Lost."
3. Is this the way you treat me, I who have befriended you so often?
4. Please leave the package at Clark's, he who lives on Chestnut street.
5. You think me idle, I who have served you so faithfully.
6. Christ, and Him crucified, was the basis of his sermons.
7. We can visit our friends, they who called on us last week.
8. He is next in succession to the earl of Berkeley, he who has not claimed the title.—*Mackenzie.*
9. Amid the tumult of the routed train
The sons of false Antimachus were slain—
He who for bribes his faithless counsels sold,
And voted Helen's stay for Paris' gold.—*Pope.*
10. Had he really passed and left her, she who had done so much for him?—*Mrs. Oliphant.*

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the words in apposition:

1. I love thy kingdom, Lord,
The house of thy abode.—*Dwight.*
2. We, the people of the United States, . . . do ordain and establish this Constitution.—*U. S. Constitution.*
3. O Music, sphere-descended maid,
Friend of Pleasure, Wisdom's aid!—*Collins.*
4. The harp, his sole remaining joy,
Was carried by an orphan boy.—*Scott.*
5. Company, villainous company, hath been the spoil of me.—*Shakespeare.*

6. From brightning fields of ether fair disclosed,
Child of the Sun, resplendent Summer comes.—*Thomson*.
7. Go ye every man unto his city.—*Bible*.
8. His praise, ye brooks, attune.—*Thomson*.
9. They went out one by one.—*Bible*.
10. Thus shall mankind his guardian care engage,
The promised father of a future age.—*Pope*.
11. Out of this nettle, danger, we pluck this flower, safety.—*Shake-
speare*.

Same Case after the Verb.

RULE VII.—*Intransitive verbs and verbs in the passive voice have the same case after them as before them when both words refer to the same thing.*

Remarks.

1. The verbs usually placed between nouns or pronouns meaning the same thing are—*be, become, seem, appear*, and *intransitive verbs of motion, place, or position*; also in the passive voice the *transitive verbs call, choose, name, elect, consider, constitute, appoint, esteem*, and a few others.
2. When the noun or the pronoun following the verb is in the nominative case, meaning the same as the subject, it is called the *attribute, or predicate nominative*.
3. A noun or a pronoun either following or preceding the verb may be in the same case as a phrase or a clause preceding or following the verb, and meaning the same thing; as, “*It is sometimes difficult to avoid mistakes*,” “*That we should be compelled to remain is a disgrace*.”
4. Intransitive verbs or verbs in the passive voice placed between two nouns or pronouns meaning the same thing perform the office of the copula, and may therefore be called *copulative verbs*.
5. The noun or the pronoun following the infinitive, and meaning the same as the noun or the pronoun preceding, is

sometimes in the objective case; as, "I took *him* to be a *stranger*."

6. It has been argued by some writers that the expression "It is me" is correct, because it is common. This is not true. "It is me" is not common among good writers, any more than are the expressions "It is him" and "It is her." "It is I," "It is he," and "It is she" should be used instead."

7. Any verb may be used as the copula between the subject and an attribute meaning the same as the subject, except a transitive verb in the active voice. Those most commonly used are—*be, become*, etc., named in Remark 1.

8. The noun or the pronoun after a passive or an intransitive participle limited by a possessive is in the nominative case independent, as *he* in the sentence, "I thought of its *being* he."

Cautions.

1. The objective should not be used as the attribute after a finite verb.

2. When the noun or the pronoun preceding the infinitive is the object of a preceding transitive verb, the noun or the pronoun following the infinitive, and meaning the same thing, should have the objective form. Thus, "I took it to be *her*," not "I took it to be *she*."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—Can you tell me whom that person is?

The sentence is incorrect, because *whom*, a pronoun having the objective form, is used as the nominative after *is*, meaning the same as *person*. The nominative form *who* should be substituted, according to Rule VII.

1. Whom do men say that I am? 2. Whom was it you spoke of?
3. It might have been me whom you saw. 4. If I were him I would return at once. 5. It was him that made the mistake. 6. They did not think of its being me. 7. Who was it that played truant? Not us. 8. It wasn't me that said so. 9. Who is coming? It is me.

10. It is not me you are in love with.—*Spectator*.

11. It cannot be me.—*Swift.*
12. Whom do men say that I, the Son of man, am?—*Bible.*
13. These are her garb, not her; they but express
Her form, her semblance, her appropriate dress.
Hannah More.
14. That depends partly on whom the woman may be, and partly
on whom the man may be.—*A. Trollope.*

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse all the words used as nouns or pronouns:

1. Procrastination is the thief of time.—*Young.*
2. The child is father of the man.—*Wordsworth.*
3. When I was a child I spake as a child.—*St. Paul.*
4. Schoolhouses are the republican line of fortifications.—*Horace Mann.*
5. "Behold!" said the streamlet; "to nourish this beauty is the end and aim of my life."—*Conway.*
6. And he returned a friend who came a foe.—*Pope.*
7. By such a change thy darkness is made light,
Thy chaos order, and thy weakness might?—*Couper.*
8. But what! is thy servant a dog?—*Bible.*
9. When pain and anguish wring the brow,
A ministering angel thou.—*Scott.*
10. A man he was to all the country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds a year.—*Goldsmith.*
11. Art thou that traitor angel? Art thou he who first broke the peace of heaven?—*Milton.*
12. Where ignorance is bliss
'Tis folly to be wise.—*Gray.*
13. Neither a borrower nor a lender be,
For loan oft loseth both itself and friend,
And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.—*Shakespeare.*

Adjectives.

RULE VIII.—*Adjectives modify the nouns or the pronouns which they limit or qualify.*

Remarks.

1. The modified noun may consist of any word, phrase, or clause used as a noun.
2. Two adjectives taken together as one term may be called a complex adjective; as, "*Dark blue ocean*," "*One hundred and six dollars*."
3. Numerals taken together without a conjunction are joined by a hyphen; as, *sixty-two, forty-five*, etc., meaning *sixty and two, forty and five*.
4. Adjectives denoting but one are joined to nouns in the singular, and those denoting more than one to nouns in the plural; as, *one man, five men, this box, these boxes*.
5. An adjective may modify a noun modified by another adjective; as, "*A beautiful little flower*." In this expression *little* modifies *flower*, and *beautiful* modifies *little flower*.
6. When an adjective precedes a noun used to limit another, it modifies the noun in the possessive, rather than the noun limited by the possessive. Thus, in the expression "*The old pear-tree's leaves have fallen*," *the* and *old* both modify *pear-tree*, instead of *leaves*.
7. When a comparison is expressed between two objects, the comparative degree is used; as, "*The oak is taller than the cedar*."
8. The highest as well as the lowest degree of comparison is expressed by the superlative; as, "*This is the largest and that the smallest of the trees*."
9. When the adjective follows a copulative verb, and is used as a part of the predicate, it is called the *attribute*. Thus, in the sentence "*Snow is white*," *white* is the attribute. In such cases it is parsed as limiting or qualifying the subject.
10. An adjective usually precedes the noun, but follows the

pronoun, which it modifies; as, "An *eloquent orator*," "*He is eloquent*."

To this rule there are, however, many exceptions, as the noun is often followed by the adjective which modifies it; as, "The *orator* is *eloquent*."

11. An adjective may be used abstractly after a verb in the infinitive mode or a participle; as, "To be *successful* requires diligence." In such cases it does not relate to any noun or pronoun.

Cautions.

1. When an adjective is necessarily plural, the noun by which it is limited is also plural. Thus, *three miles, forty dollars*.

2. Some nouns used collectively, as, *head, sail*, etc., retain the singular form, though limited by a plural adjective; as, "*A fleet of thirty sail*," "*Five hundred head of cattle*."

3. When a compound adjective consists of a numeral and a noun, the noun part retains the singular form; as, *A three-cent piece, A five-dollar bill, A sixteen-foot alley*.

4. When the comparative degree is used, the latter term of comparison should exclude the former if the objects belong to the same class. Thus, instead of "New York is more populous than any State in the Union," say, "New York is more populous than any other State in the Union."

5. When the superlative degree is used the latter term of comparison should not exclude the former, if the objects compared belong to the same class. Thus, instead of "New York is the most populous of the other States of the Union," say, "New York is the most populous of the States of the Union."

6. Two signs of the comparative or the superlative should not be used in making a comparison. Thus, *more wiser* and *most wisest* should be *wiser* and *wisest*.

The word *lesser* is, however, sometimes used by writers of good repute; as, *Lesser Asia*. Of *lesser note*.—*Goldsmith*.

7. Avoid the vulgarisms *this here* and *that there* for *this* and *that*.

8. When quality is to be expressed, the adjective, and not the

adverb should follow the verb. Thus, "The trees grow *tall*," "We arrived *safe*." The three stood *calm* and *silent*.—*Macaulay*.

9. When a limiting and a qualifying adjective modify the same noun, the limiting adjective is placed first; as, "The greatest men," "The two greatest men," "This excellent advice."

10. When a cardinal and an ordinal adjective precede a plural noun, the ordinal usually precedes the cardinal; as, "The *first two stanzas*," "The *last four chapters*."

If, however, the first stanza of each of two separate poems, or the last chapter of each of four books, were meant, it would be correct to say, "The *two first stanzas*" and "The *four last chapters*."

11. When several adjectives limiting the same noun follow one another and are separated by conjunctions, the simplest is usually placed first; as, "The first gentleman we met was *older* and *more intelligent* than the other."

12. When two adjectives limiting the same noun are joined without a conjunction, that which, joined with the noun, can be limited by the other is placed next the noun. Thus, instead of "She was a *young intelligent lady*," say, "She was an *intelligent young lady*."

13. Be careful in the use of adjectives to use the proper forms. Thus, instead of "He was *further away* than I was," say, "He was *farther away*," etc.

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*The farmer sold sixty bushel of wheat.*

The sentence is incorrect, because *sixty*, which is an adjective of plural form, is connected with a noun in the singular. The noun therefore should be made plural in form, and the word *bushels* should be substituted for *bushel*, according to *Rule VIII., Caution 1.*

1. Buy me a new pair of gloves.
2. The boy ran six mile an hour.
3. I have bought an old span of horses and a new set of harness.
4. We have ordered two ton of coal.
5. The lot is bounded on the south by a sixteen-feet alley.
6. Let us sing the two last verses.

7. The hunters have arrived safely. 8. Solomon was wiser than any of the ancient kings. 9. Rhode Island is the smallest of the other States of the Union. 10. Rhode Island is smaller than any State of the Union. 11. After the most strictest sect of our religion I lived a Pharisee. 12. A herd of ninety heads of cattle are grazing on the meadow. 13. The child lay quietly on the floor. 14. A little rugged church stood near the village. 15. The most industrious and wisest of the three remained. 16. Here is the roundest, rosiest apple of the lot.

17. 'Tis for a thousand pound.—*Couper*.
18. How much more are ye better than the fowls?—*Bible*.
19. This was the most unkindest cut of all.—*Shakespeare*.
20. England had not such another king.—*Goldsmith*.
21. Shakespeare is more faithful to the true language of Nature than any writer.—*Blair*.
22. A close prisoner in a room twenty foot square.—*Locke*.
23. By silence, many a dunderpate, like the owl, the stupidest of birds, comes to be considered the very type of wisdom.—*Irving*.
24. The landlord was thought to see further and deeper into things than any man in the parish.—*Fielding*.
25. The solace arising from this consideration seems, indeed, the weakest of all others.—*Dr. Johnson*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the adjectives:

1. Sloth makes all things difficult, but industry all easy.—*Franklin*.
2. A pebble in the streamlet scant
 Has turned the course of many a river;
 A dewdrop on the infant plant
 Has warped the giant oak for ever.—*Anon.*
3. Set a high price on your leisure moments. Properly expended, they will procure for you a stock of great thoughts.—*H. Wise*.
4. The true hero is the great wise man of duty.—*Bushnell*.
5. One of the illusions is, that the present hour is not the critical, decisive hour. Write it on your heart that every day is the best day of the year.—*Emerson*.

6. A dainty plant is the ivy green,
 That creepeth o'er ruins old ;
 Of right choice food are his meals, I ween,
 In his cell so lone and cold.—*Dickens*.

7. Judges ought to be more learned than witty, more reverend than plausible, and more advised than confident.—*Bacon*.

Articles.

RULE IX. (Special).—*An article modifies the noun which it limits.*

Remarks.

1. Articles are sometimes used as adverbs to limit adjectives or adverbs; as, “*A great many trees*,” “*The older he grows the more feeble he becomes*.”

2. An article placed before a proper noun renders the proper noun common; as, “He was *the Cicero* of his age” = He was the *orator* of his age.

3. The noun which the article limits is sometimes omitted; as, “Turn neither to the right nor to the left.” The article in such cases should be parsed as limiting a noun understood.

4. The article usually precedes an adjective limiting the same noun, but it follows *all*, *such*, *many*, *both*, or *what*; also other adjectives if they are modified by *too*, *so*, *as*, or *how*; as, “How great a fire a little spark kindleth!” “Many a flower is born to blush unseen.”

5. When *a* is used as a substitute for *at*, *in*, *on*, or other prepositions, it should be parsed as a preposition; as in the sentence, “The boy has gone a-hunting.”

6. When the indefinite article is used before nouns preceded by *dozen*, *few*, *hundred*, etc., it limits these words used as collective nouns, the preposition *of* being understood before the noun following. Thus, “A dozen (of) apples,” “A hundred (of) men.”

When *millions* and larger numbers are used the preposition is expressed; as, “A million of men.”

Cautions.

1. The article should be omitted before abstract nouns, the names of sciences, and nouns denoting material or substance, when used in a general sense; as, "*Love* is the fulfilling of the law," "*Mathematics* is the science of quantity," "*Coal* is abundant in Pennsylvania."

2. The article should be omitted before a common noun used in its most extended sense; as, "Man is mortal," "Toads are reptiles."

3. The article should be omitted before a noun denoting a mere title or name used as a word; as, "The ruler was called *governor*," "His title was *duke*."

4. The definite article should be inserted before each of the particulars included in a class; as, "Nouns have three cases—*the nominative*, *the possessive*, and *the objective*."

5. The article should be used before a common noun when it is used to denote an individual object; as, "*The rose* is a beautiful flower."

6. The article should be placed before an adjective used as a noun; as, "*The brave* deserve the fair."

7. The article is used before *few* and *little* to denote *some*. Thus, "*A few* persons were present," "I have *a little* money."

8. The article is omitted before *few* and *little* when *none*, *not many*, or *not much* is meant. Thus, "*Few* shall part where many meet," "*Little* was said on either side."

9. The article is used before each of two nouns when compared if they refer to separate persons or things. Thus, "*The nightingale* is a more beautiful songster than *the thrush*."

10. The article is omitted before the second of two nouns compared if both refer to the same person or thing. Thus, "*Webster* was a more celebrated *orator* than *statesman*."

11. When several nouns have different constructions or express direct contrast, or if it is desired to emphasize or give prominence to each noun, the article is placed before each. Thus, "*The horse* and *the rider* both were killed," "*The street*,

but not *the number*, was given," "Now, that I own a pig and a cow, everybody bids me good-morrow."

12. When several adjectives in succession limit the same noun the article is placed before the first only; as, "*A black and white cat*," meaning one cat.

13. When several adjectives in succession limit a noun meaning several objects of the same name, the article is placed before each. Thus, "*A black, a roan, and a bay horse*" means three horses of different colors.

14. The definite article is used before the epithets *honorable* and *reverend* when they occur in a sentence; as, "An oration was delivered by *the Honorable Rufus Choate*," "The sermon of *the Reverend Doctor Smith* was eloquent."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*He is a wise and a true man.*

The sentence is incorrect, because the adjectives *wise* and *true* refer to the same noun, *man*, meaning but one man; the article should therefore be omitted before *true*, according to *Rule IX., Caution 12.*

1. Goldsmith the poet and the novelist died in 1774. 2. A horse is a noble animal. 3. A red, a white, and a blue flag is our national emblem. 4. A large and small house occupy the lot. 5. A few have the pleasure of associating with such an one. 6. The Schuylkill and Delaware rivers unite at Philadelphia. 7. Avoid the talking too much of your neighbors. 8. *E* has a long and short sound. 9. A lion shall eat straw like an *ox*. 10. Solomon was a wise and a good king. 11. The grammar is a useful study. 12. The lectures of Honorable Mr. Choate were eloquent. 13. Nouns have two numbers, the singular and plural. 14. Let us make a memoranda of it. 15. A horse and a buggy stand before the house. 16. Neither the poor nor rich are completely happy. 17. What sort of an animal is a ferret? 18. The black and the white cow was killed.

19. This caused an universal consternation throughout the colonies
—*Burke.*

20. For the oak, the pine, and the ash were names of whole classes of objects.—*Blair.*

21. The first qualification required is a genius.—*Pope*.
22. He is indeed more of an antiquary than a historian.—*Oraik*.
23. To the antiquary and artist these columns are a source of inexhaustible observations and designs.—*Byron*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the articles and adjectives:

1. Spring hangs her infant blossoms on the trees,
Rocked in the cradle of the western breeze.—*Cowper*.
2. With the talents of an angel a man may be a fool.—*Young*.
3. The things which are impossible with men are possible with God.—*Bible*.
4. The hand is almost valueless at one end of the arm unless there is a brain at the other end.—*Horace Mann*.
5. The will of the many and their interests must very often differ.—*Burke*.
6. How brilliant and mirthful the light of her eye,
Like a star glancing out from the blue of the sky!—*Whittier*.

Pronominal Adjectives.

RULE X. (Special).—*A pronominal adjective modifies the noun which it limits.*

Remarks.

1. A pronominal adjective may be parsed as an adjective when the noun which it limits is expressed, and as a pronoun when the noun is understood. Thus, “*These* (adj.) goods are better than *those*” (pro.).
2. *All* limits nouns in the singular denoting *quantity*, and nouns in the plural denoting *number*; as, “All the wheat was sold,” “All birds are bipeds.”
3. *Each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither* require nouns, pronouns, and verbs connected with them to be in the third person singular; as, “*Every man, woman, and child was saved*.”
4. *Every* is sometimes used to limit a noun and a numeral

adjective taken together; as, "Every *ten* days," "Every *hundred* dollars."

5. *None* means *no one*, but it is used to represent nouns in either the singular or the plural; as, "We looked for a *house*, but we found *none*," "The ship sank, and *none were left* to tell of the disaster."

6. *Some* is sometimes placed before nouns to make the assertion less definite; as, "This occurred *some* ten years ago."

7. *Many* is often followed by *a*, the two limiting a noun in the singular; as, "*Many a day* I sat and listened." The two words may be parsed as a complex adjective.

Cautions.

1. When objects are spoken of, *this* and *these* refer to what is near, and *that* and *those* to what is distant; as, "*This valley* is fertile, but *those mountain-sides* seem to be barren."

2. When objects are contrasted, *this* and *these* refer to the last mentioned, and *that* and *those* to the first mentioned; as,

Farewell, my friends! farewell, my foes!
My peace with *these*, my love with *those*.—*Burns*.

3. The pronoun *them* should not be used instead of the adjective *those*. Thus, we should say, *Those* books, *Those* papers, instead of *Them* books, *Them* papers.

4. *Each other* applies to two objects, and *one another* to more than two. Thus, "Righteousness and peace have kissed *each other*," "The soldiers followed *one another*."

5. *Either* and *neither* refer to one of two objects only. Thus, "*Either* of the two books will answer, though *neither* is perfect."

6. *Any* or *any one*, and *none*, may be used when reference is made to one of more than two objects. Thus, "*Any one* of the *four* is competent," "*None* of the *three* seems to think himself guilty."

Note.—With reference to the last three cautions it may be remarked that while the best usage takes note of the cautions, some standard writers disregard the fourth, and apply *each other* also to more than two

objects, though the propriety of this usage is doubtful. The distinction is an important one, and it should be observed.

7. *Either* means one or the other of two; *each* means both or all taken separately. Thus, "*Either James or John will come,*" "*Each of the five was guilty.*"

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*Neither of the six came.*

The sentence is incorrect, because *neither*, which refers to one of two, is here used to refer to one of six. *None* or *no one* should be substituted for *neither*, according to *Rule X., Caution 6.*

1. These kind of roses are very fragrant. 2. Teachers like to see their pupils polite to each other. 3. What have you done with them books? 4. Neither of the three could be convinced by the others. 5. On either side of the river stands a row of trees. 6. Such sentiments as them should never be entertained by any one.

7. Memory and forecast just returns engage—
This pointing back to youth, that on to age.—*Pope.*
8. They are these kind of gods which Horace mentions.—*Addison.*
9. Jack and Peg called one another nicknames.—*Swift.*
10. Verse and prose run into one another like light and shade.—*Blair.*
11. These sort of fellows are very numerous.—*Spectator.*
12. For beast and bird;
These to their grassy couch, those to their nests, repair.—*Milton.*

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse all the adjectives:

1. This only grant me, that my means may lie
Too low for envy, for contempt too high.—*Cowley.*
2. They shall every man turn to his own people, and flee every one
into his own land.—*Bible.*
3. All actual heroes are essential men,
And all men possible heroes.—*Mrs. Browning.*

4. None but the brave deserves the fair.—*Dryden*.
5. All are architects of fate,
Working in these walls of time—
Some with massive deeds and great,
Some with ornaments of rhyme.—*Longfellow*.
6. I dare do all that may become a man;
Who dares do more is none.—*Shakespeare*.
7. Every phrase and every figure which he uses tends to render the picture more lively and complete.—*Blair*.
8. Not every one that saith unto me, “Lord! Lord!” shall enter into the kingdom of heaven.—*Bible*.
9. If your arguments produce no conviction, they are worth nothing to men.—*Beattie*.
10. Honor and shame from no condition rise;
Act well your part, there all the honor lies.—*Pope*.

Personal Pronouns.

RULE XI.—A personal pronoun agrees with the noun which it represents in number, person, and gender.

Remarks.

1. The following are exceptions to the rule.

(a.) *We*, though in the plural, is sometimes used by editors, speakers, and others to denote but *one*; as, “*We* give our opinion on this matter.”

(b.) *You*, though in the plural when in the common style, is often used to denote but *one*; as, “*John, you* may study now.”

(c.) *It*, though in the neuter gender, is often used to represent objects whose sex is disregarded; as, “The bird broke *its* wing,” “The infant lies in *its* cradle.”

(d.) When neuter nouns are personified, *he* and *she* are used instead of *it*. Thus, “The sun beams upon us with *his* effulgent glory.”

2. Such collectives as *many*, *dozen*, *score*, *few*, etc., preceded

by *a*, are represented by pronouns in the plural; as, "A great many lost *their* lives by the fever."

3. As there is no personal pronoun of the common gender in the third person, singular number, the masculine form is used to represent nouns which may be either masculine or feminine; as, "The teacher who loves *his* pupil is interested in *his* welfare."

4. The pronoun *it*, used indefinitely, may represent a noun or a pronoun in either of the numbers and any of the genders.

5. When a pronoun represents two or more antecedents of different genders, it is best to omit the gender in parsing, as it cannot be determined.

6. Antecedents in the singular number and of different genders cannot be represented by a single pronoun. A separate pronoun must be used to represent each noun. Thus, "The boy lost *his* book, but the girl did not lose *hers*."

Cautions.

1. When the antecedent, or noun represented, is a collective noun conveying the idea of unity, the pronoun agrees with it in the singular number, third person, neuter gender. Thus, "A civilized *people* has no right to violate *its* solemn obligations."

2. When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun agrees with it in the plural number, the gender corresponding to the individuals forming the collection. Thus, "The *committee* differed in *their* opinions."

3. A pronoun used to represent two or more nouns taken together, and connected by *and*, should be in the plural number. Thus, "Both *teacher* and *pupil* have *their* rights."

4. When a pronoun represents two or more nouns in the singular, connected by *and*, it agrees with them in the singular if they represent but one person or thing; as, "This great orator and statesman died in 1876."

5. When two or more nouns in the singular, connected by *and*, are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the pronoun which represents them is in the singular number; as, "Every bush and every tree had lost *its* greenness and *its* life."

6. When two or more nouns in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, are represented by a pronoun, it agrees with them separately in the singular. Thus, "Neither James nor John has done *his* whole duty."

7. When two or more nouns are connected by *or* or *nor*, if one of them is in the plural, the pronoun should be made plural, and the plural noun should be placed nearest to it. Thus, "Neither the general nor his soldiers felt that *they* were wrong."

8. When two or more nouns are connected by *as well as*, *and also*, *but not*, and similar connectives, they belong to different propositions, and the pronoun represents the first noun only. Thus, "The *captain* as well as the mate believed that *he* would see land."

9. If two or more nouns or pronouns connected by *and* are of different persons, the pronoun which represents them is of the first person, if either of the antecedents is of the first person; as, "Mary and I are fond of *our* teacher."

If none of the antecedents is of the first person, the pronoun is of the second person; as, "You and your friend must do *your* work."

10. When using the pronoun of the second person singular, the same form should be preserved throughout the sentence. Thus, "Thou and thy sons shall bear the iniquity of *your* priesthood," should be "Thou and thy sons shall bear the iniquity of *thy* priesthood."

11. When the use of the pronoun causes ambiguity, repeat the noun instead. Thus, the sentence "The farmer told the merchant his hogs were in his garden" may mean—

1. The merchant's hogs were in the merchant's garden;
2. The merchant's hogs were in the farmer's garden;
3. The farmer's hogs were in the merchant's garden; or,
4. The farmer's hogs were in the farmer's garden.

12. When personal pronouns in the singular number are used, the second person is placed before the others, and the third is placed before the first. Thus, "*You* and *I*," "*She* and *I*," "*You* and *he*."

13. When the plural personal pronouns are used, *we* is usually placed first, *you* second, and *they* third. Thus, " *We* and *they*," "*We* and *you*," "*You* and *they*."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*The committee do not agree in its opinion.*

The sentence is incorrect, because the collective noun, *committee*, here conveys the idea of plurality, and should be represented by a pronoun in the plural number; *their* should therefore be substituted for *its*, according to *Rule XI., Caution 2.*

1. I suppose everybody has their troubles. 2. The army marched on their route southward. 3. Rebecca took goodly raiment and put them upon Jacob. 4. The jury differed in its opinion. 5. The jury gave in their verdict at six o'clock. 6. A person can content themselves on very little. 7. The earth is my mother; I will recline on its bosom. 8. If you want to get a good horse or a buggy, I can tell you where to find them. 9. The society will hold their meeting at seven o'clock. 10. If any person thinks it is easy to make a speech, let them try it. 11. Each soldier must carry their knapsack on the long march. 12. Milo began to lift the ox when he was a calf. 13. William and you and I will come. 14. They and we may enter. 15. He melted thirteen columns into one thunderbolt and flung them at George the III.

16. Every one must judge of their own feelings.—*Byron.*

17. Each of the ladies, like two excellent actresses, were perfect in their parts.—*Scott.*

18. You draw the inspiring breath of ancient song,
Till nobly rises emulous thy own.—*Thomson.*

19. His form has not yet lost all her original brightness.—*Milton.*

20. Everybody trembled for themselves or their friends.—*Goldsmith.*

21. I promise you this was enough to discourage thee.—*Bunyan.*

22. The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster the less weight it carries.—*Addison.*

23. All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers, but his follies and vices are innumerable.—*Swift.*

24. No one can have lost their character by this sort of exercise in a confined circle and be allowed to prosper.—*Disraeli*.

25. The Romans stipulated with the Carthaginians to furnish them with ships for transport and war.—*Arbuthnot*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the personal pronouns.

1. Thou art, O God, the life and light
Of all this wondrous world we see.—*Moore*.
2. Yes, child of suffering, thou mayst well be sure
He who ordained the Sabbath loves the poor.—*Holmes*.
3. My son, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not.—*Bible*.
4. Though the mills of God grind slowly, yet they grind exceeding small;
Though with patience He stands waiting, with exactness grinds
He all.—*Longfellow*.
5. Our very hopes belied our fears,
Our fears our hopes belied;
We thought her dying when she slept,
And sleeping when she died.—*Hood*.
6. This above all, to thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.—*Shakespeare*.
7. These are thy glorious works, Parent of good,
Almighty! Thine this universal frame.—*Milton*.
8. Thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory.—*Bible*.
9. All mine are thine, and thine are mine.—*Bible*.
10. Alas! they had been friends in youth,
But whispering tongues can poison truth;
And constancy lives in realms above,
And life is thorny, and youth is vain;
And to be wroth with one we love
Doth work like madness on the brain.—*Coleridge*.

Relative Pronouns.

RULE XII.—*A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number, person, and gender.*

Remarks.

1. The relative *who* is applied to persons, also to things personified; as, "He of whom you spoke," "The monkey, who now arose to speak."
2. *Which* is applied to animals, also to things without life; as, "The horse which was sold," "The book which we bought."
3. *Which* was formerly used also in referring to persons; as, "Our Father, which art in heaven."
4. A relative clause is said to be *restrictive* when it limits or restricts like an adjective; as, "Cotton that grows on the sea islands"—that is, "Sea-island cotton."
5. When a relative pronoun is used apparently in answer to a question, it is by some grammarians called a *responsive* pronoun; as, "Who recites next? I do not know *who* recites next."—"Which did he buy? I cannot tell *which* he bought." If a special name is needed for these pronouns, they may be called *Responsive relative* pronouns. In these sentences, *who recites* and *which he bought* are respectively the objects of *do know* and *cannot tell*. The antecedent is not expressed.
6. The antecedent of a relative is sometimes omitted; as, (He) "who steals my purse, steals trash."
7. A relative having several antecedents of different persons agrees with the one nearest to it; as, "You are the boy who has recited."
8. Relative clauses are adjective elements.
9. The same rules that determine the number and the gender of personal pronouns apply in the case of relative pronouns.

Cautions.

1. The relative should be placed near its antecedent to avoid ambiguity. Thus, "All gain the respect of their friends that

do their duty," should be "All that do their duty gain the respect of their friends."

2. When a relative represents a collective noun denoting unity, *which* is used; as, "The army *which* was defeated suffered great privations."

3. When a proper name is used merely as a word, it is represented by *which*; as, "Shakespeare is a name *which* is dear to every lover of poetry."

4. A relative may have for its antecedent a sentence used as a noun, but not an adjective or a verb. Thus, "He determined to be temperate, which is a virtue all will commend," should be "He determined to be *temperate*, and *temperance* is a virtue all will commend."

5. *What* is improperly used for the conjunction *that*; as, "Who knows but *what* (that) we may succeed?"

6. *Whom* and *which* usually follow the preposition by which they are governed, but precede the transitive verb. *That* always precedes both the verb and the preposition. Thus, "To *whom* did we speak?" "He was the same man *that* I spoke to."

7. *That* is used instead of *who* or *which* in the following cases:

(a.) After *all* and similar antecedents when the relative clause is restrictive; as, "All *that* knew his good qualities loved him."

(b.) After *who* used interrogatively; as, "Who *that* listened to the arguments was not convinced?"

(c.) After an adjective or an adverb in the superlative degree; as, "This was the *largest* *that* I saw."

(d.) When reference is made to antecedents which separately are represented by *who* and *which*; as, "Both the *rider* and the *steed* *that* we saw were killed."

(e.) After the adjectives *same*, *every*, and *very*, when the relative clause is restrictive; as, "This is the *same* lesson that we recited yesterday."

(f.) After *it* used indefinitely; as, "It was not he alone *that* was wrong."

8. A change of relatives referring to the same antecedent should be avoided. Thus, "He is the same person *that* we met, and *who* came to visit us," should be "He is the same person *that* we met, and *that* came to visit us."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*The ablest man who ever lived could not solve the problem.*

The sentence is incorrect, because *who* is used after the adjective, *ablest*, in the superlative degree; *that* should be substituted for *who*, according to *Rule XII., Caution 7.*

1. That man was the first who entered. 2. What was that creature whom Job called Leviathan? 3. The way he explained it was this. 4. He saith unto the man which had the withered hand, "Stand forth." 5. The most violent storm which ever swept over this valley occurred yesterday. 6. The heroic souls which defended the Alamo. 7. This lubberly boy we usually call Falstaff, who is but another name for fat and fun. 8. All who knew her spoke of her reverently. 9. He has no doubt but what you will obey. 10. This is our friend whom we saw in New York, and that came to meet us. 11. The wisest teacher who ever taught, and the most diligent student who ever studied, could not have done better.

12. Who can ever be easy who is reproached with his own ill-conduct?—*Thos. à Kempis.*

13. The same whom John saw also in the sun.—*Milton.*
14. News was brought that Darius was but twenty miles from the place they then were.—*Goldsmith.*

15. The earliest accounts which history gives us concerning all nations, bear testimony to these facts.—*Blair.*

16. Our party of seventeen, the largest which ever entered the valley.—*Richardson.*

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the pronouns:

1. In this world it is not what we take up, but what we give up, that makes us rich.—*Beecher.*

2. Men are what their mothers made them.—*Emerson.*

3. The clouds which rise with thunder slake
Our thirsty souls with rain.—*Whittier*.
4. He's true to God who's true to man.—*Lowell*.
5. The best part of our knowledge is that which teaches us where
knowledge leaves off and ignorance begins.—*Holmes*.
6. Who would be free, themselves must strike the blow.—*Byron*.
7. There is, however, a limit at which forbearance ceases to be a
virtue.—*Burke*.
8. We should count time by heart-throbs; he most lives
Who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best.—*P. J. Bailey*.
9. What in me is dark,
Illumine; what is low, raise and support.—*Milton*.
10. Whatever is, is right.—*Pope*.
11. I hope I shall always possess firmness and virtue enough to
maintain what I consider the most enviable of all titles, the character
of an honest man.—*Washington*.
12. They never fail who die in a great cause.—*Byron*.
13. What a rare gift, by the by, is that of manners!—*Lyttelton*.
14. It is what we ourselves have done, and not what others have
done for us, that we shall be remembered by in after ages.—*Wayland*.
15. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate,
All but the page prescribed, their present state;
From brutes what men, from men what spirits know;
Or who could suffer being here below?—*Pope*.

Agreement of Finite Verbs.

RULE XIII.—A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

Remarks.

1. The pronouns *we* and *you*, though used to represent but one person, require verbs to agree with them in the plural number; as, “We *know* that you *have done* your duty.”
2. When the pronoun *it*, used indefinitely, is the subject of a sentence, the verb agrees with it in the third person, though

the verb may be followed by a nominative differing from the subject in either number or person, or both; as, "It was *you*," "It was *they* who did the work."

3. A verb in the imperative mode agrees with the pronoun *thou*, *you*, or *ye*, understood, as its subject. In its present use it is limited to the second person.

Note.—It is claimed by some grammarians that the imperative mode is used also in the first and the third person; as in "*Cursed be I* that did so," "*Blessed be he* that blesseth thee," "*Thy kingdom come*." The first of these sentences means, *May I be cursed that did so*, and the verb is properly in the potential mode. The verb in the second sentence is properly in the potential mode, with *may* understood. The sentence means, *May he be blessed that blesseth thee*. The third example means, *Let thy kingdom come*—*come* being properly in the infinitive mode, with the sign *to* omitted.

4. The imperative mode in such expressions as "God said, Let there be light," "Let us proceed to our work," etc., is used without reference to a person addressed. It is, however, none the less imperative.

5. A finite verb never agrees with a noun in the first or the second person, but with the pronoun representing it; as, "*I, Thomas, have recited*," "*My boy, if you are tempted, resist evil*."

6. When the subject of a sentence is a phrase or a clause, the verb agrees with it in the third person, singular number; as, "*To know that we have done our duty is consoling*."

7. The number of a verb, having a subject whose form is the same in both numbers, is determined by the meaning of the sentence. Thus, "*A deer was caught*," "*Some deer were caught*."

8. When a verb has two or more subjects of different persons, connected by *and*, it agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third. Thus, "*He and I will go*." *Will go* is here in the first person.

9. The subject is understood in such expressions as *as follows*, *as appears*; as, "*The report is true, as (it) appears from his statement*."

10. When two or more subjects in the singular number, con-

nected by *and*, follow the verb, the verb is sometimes put in the singular; as, "Thine is the kingdom and the power." In such cases the speaker seems to fix his attention on each subject separately.

Cautions.

1. When the subject of a sentence is a collective noun conveying the idea of unity, the verb agrees with it in the singular number. Thus, "The army *has left* nothing in its track but wasted fields."
2. When the subject is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb agrees with it in the plural number. Thus, "The committee *do not agree* in their suggestions."
3. A verb having two or more subjects denoting different persons or things, and taken together, agrees with them in the plural number. Thus, "Peace and plenty *go* hand in hand."
4. A verb having two or more subjects, connected by *and*, but referring to the same person or thing, is in the singular number. Thus, "The great journalist and poet, Bryant, *is dead*."
5. When two or more subjects in the singular are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the verb agrees with them in the singular. Thus, "Each boy and each girl *is seated* in the proper place."
6. When two or more subjects in the singular are connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with them in the singular. Thus, "Neither habitation nor inhabitant *was spared*."
7. When one of the subjects connected by *or* or *nor* is in the plural number, it is placed nearest to the verb, and the verb agrees with it in the plural. Thus, "Neither the officer nor the soldiers *were frightened*."
8. When two or more subjects are connected by *as well as*, *and also*, *but not*, and similar connectives, they belong to different propositions, and the verb agrees with the first subject only, the other subjects each having a verb understood. Thus, "The just, as well as the unjust, *must suffer*."
9. When a verb has two or more subjects of different persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, it agrees in person with the one nearest

to it. Thus, "Neither he nor I *am* going," "Either he or I *am* going." A better arrangement of sentences like these is to place the verb after the first subject. Thus, "Either he is going, or I *am*."

10. Every verb, except those in the imperative and the infinitive mode, should have a subject expressed, unless several verbs are taken together in the same construction. Thus, "Some people neither try to do their work well, nor can do it well," should be "Some people neither try to do their work well, nor can *they* do it well."

11. A modifier of the subject does not affect the form of the verb. Thus, "The number of students *is* (not *are*) increasing daily," "Six months' pay *is* now due."

12. Care should be taken to use the proper tense: thus, the *present perfect* to denote an action completed in present time; the *past perfect* to denote an action completed before some past time mentioned; and the *future perfect* to denote an action completed before some future time mentioned. Instead of "The train *left* before we arrived," say, "The train *had left*," etc. Instead of "The work *will* be completed before he comes to see us," say, "The work *will have been completed* before he comes to see us."

13. Use the subjunctive form when doubt or a future contingency is implied; as, "We shall go to-morrow *if it do not rain*." But the indicative form should be used when no doubt or future contingency is implied; as, "Though he *is* my enemy, I will not harm him."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—Every berth, settee, chair, and peg were occupied.

The sentence is incorrect, because the subjects of the verb are in the singular, and are preceded by *every*; the verb should therefore be in the singular, and *was* should be substituted for *were*, according to Rule XIII., Caution 5.

1. There is some circumstances connected with the case, which is mysterious.
2. If the facts of the evidence leaves a doubt, you must acquit the prisoner.
3. The commonwealth asks nothing but what

the law and the evidence requires. 4. After the business was settled we dined together. 5. His chief occupation and enjoyment were controversy. 6. The public is respectfully invited to attend. 7. Go and lay down if you are tired. 8. Cæsar as well as Cicero were admired for their eloquence.

9. No bandit fierce, no tyrant mad with pride,
No caverned hermit, rest self-satisfied.
10. I am one of those whom neither fear nor anxiety deprive of
their ordinary appetite.—*Scott*.
11. If his explanation and mine agrees.—*Smollett*.
12. Hill and dale doth boast thy blessing.—*Milton*.
13. For you have but mistook me all the while.—*Shakespeare*.
14. Whom they had sat at defiance.—*Bolingbroke*.
15. What he writ I never read.—*Byron*.
16. They will not believe, though one arose from the dead.—*Bible*.
17. Was there not another evil I would object.—*Patrick Henry*.
18. But neither Mr. Adderley nor Mr. Roebuck are by nature inaccessible to considerations of this sort.—*Matthew Arnold*.
19. The press don't create waves; it only rides upon those already created.—*Phillips*.
20. Thus oft by mariners are shown
Earl Godwin's castles overflown.—*Swift*.
21. How weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable
Seems to me all the uses of this world!—*Shakespeare*.
22. *Abnormal* is one of those words which has come in to supply a want in the precise statements of science.—*Dean Alford*.
23. Thomas Mowbray, duke of Norfolk, head of one of the greatest houses that ever was in England.—*Maginn*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the finite verbs:

1. To live in hearts we leave behind
Is not to die.—*Campbell*.
2. Language is the amber in which a thousand precious thoughts have been safely imbedded and preserved.—*Trench*.

3. To find some sure interpreter
 My spirit vainly tries;
 I only know that God is love,
 And know that love is wise.—*A. Carey.*
4. The flowers fade, the heart withers, man grows old and dies, the world lies down in the sepulchre of ages; but Time writes no wrinkles on the brow of Eternity.—*Bishop Heber.*
5. If God send thee a cross, take it up willingly and follow Him.—*Quarles.*
6. Heaven is not gained at a single bound;
 But we build the ladder by which we rise
 From the lowly earth to the vaulted skies,
 And we mount to its summit round by round.—*Holland.*
7. Dare to be true; nothing can need a lie;
 A fault which needs it most grows two thereby.—*Herbert.*
8. Worth makes the man, and the want of it the fellow.—*Pope.*
9. Life is real! life is earnest!
 And the grave is not the goal;
 “Dust thou art, to dust returnest,”
 Was not spoken of the soul.—*Longfellow.*
10. There are moments, I think, when the spirit receives
 Whole volumes of thought on its unwritten leaves.—*Mrs. Welby*
11. Mont Blanc is the monarch of mountains;
 They crowned him long ago—
 On a throne of rocks, in a robe of clouds,
 With a diadem of snow.—*Byron.*

Infinitives.

RULE XIV.—*A verb in the infinitive mode depends upon the word which it limits or completes in meaning.*

Remarks.

1. A verb in the infinitive mode may be used as a noun in either the nominative or the objective case. Thus, “*To obey* is to enjoy,” “The young man seeks *to learn*.”

2. A verb in the infinitive mode may be used as the modifier of any part of speech, except an article, a preposition, a conjunction, or an interjection—these parts of speech never being modified.

3. When the infinitive is used as a noun, it may still be modified in all respects as a verb; as, "The diligent pupil tries to learn *his lesson well*."

4. The infinitive is said to depend sometimes on—

(a.) A conjunction; as, "He is wiser *than to come*."

(b.) An interjection; as, "*Oh, to be in such a plight!*"

In either of these cases there is an ellipsis. The first sentence is equivalent to "He is wiser than it is wise to come," or some similar expression, and the second is equivalent to "Oh, how sad to be in such a plight!"

5. The infinitive is sometimes used independently; as, "To confess the truth, I was sorry for him."

By some writers it is claimed that there is an ellipsis in sentences of this kind; as, "For me to confess," etc.

6. The infinitive of an intransitive verb or a transitive verb in the passive voice may be followed by a noun or a pronoun used independently; as, "*To become a great scholar* requires close application and hard study."

7. The sign *to* of the infinitive is frequently omitted after such expressions as, *had rather*, *had better*, and *had as lief*; as, "*I had rather be a dog and bay the moon*," etc., "*He had better return at once*."

8. The infinitive has properly no subject, for the action, being, or state expressed by the verb is not predicated of any subject, as it always is in the case of a finite verb. In such sentences as, "He ordered the boy to go," *boy* is not the subject of *to go*, but the object of *ordered*, and *to go* is an adverbial element modifying *ordered*.

Cautions.

1. The sign *to* must not be separated from the remainder of the infinitive by an intervening word. Thus, "Try to care-

fully prepare your lessons," should be "Try to prepare your lessons carefully."

2. The sign *to* of the infinitive is usually omitted after the active voice of the verbs *bid* (to command), *dare* (to venture), *see*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, and *make*, and verbs of similar meaning, as *watch*, *behold*, etc. Thus, "I saw the boy (to) *strike* his sister," "Behold him (to) *magnify* his work!"

To is not omitted after the passive voice of these verbs; as, "The boy was seen *to strike* his sister."

The sign *to* is sometimes used after a few of these verbs in the active voice when they are emphatic; as, "Darest thou then *to beard* the lion in his den?"

3. The sign *to* should not be used alone for the full infinitive form. Thus, "I did not speak, nor did I intend *to*," should be "I did not speak, nor did I intend *to speak*."

4. The sign *to* is usually omitted before all but the first of two or more infinitives in the same construction; as, "To eat, drink, and sleep was his enjoyment."

5. When the action, being, or state expressed by the infinitive is present or future as compared with that expressed by the verb which it limits, the *present* tense of the infinitive is used. Thus, "I expected *to leave*." That is, "I expected at that time to leave either then or in the future."

6. When the action, being, or state expressed by the infinitive is past as compared with that expressed by the verb which it limits, the *present perfect* tense of the infinitive is used. Thus, "Cæsar seems to *have been* ambitious." That is, "Cæsar seems (present time) to have been (past time) ambitious."

7. Verbs expressing *hope*, *intention*, *desire*, *command*, or *expectation* are followed by the *present* tense of the infinitive; as, "We intended *to go*," "We hoped *to see you*."

8. The sign *to* should not be omitted after other verbs than those mentioned in Caution 2.

9. Avoid the use of *and* instead of *to*. Thus say, "Come to see me," not "Come *and* see me;" "Try to do the work," not "Try *and* do the work."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*We were invited to come, but we preferred not to.*

The sentence is incorrect, because *to*, the sign of the infinitive, is used for the full form. *To come* should be used instead of *to*, according to *Rule XIV, Caution 3.*

1. Let him to come in. 2. A good speaker will make himself to be heard distinctly. 3. Please excuse me from class to-day. 4. You need not to run so rapidly. 5. I hoped to have met you before. 6. The books were to be bought yesterday. 7. They were to have been sold to-day. 8. I have not received a letter, and I did not wish to. 9. Come and visit me soon. 10. He was heard say that the train was late. 11. I intended to have gone last week. 12. We were directed to go, but we did not wish to.
13. We ought not to try and over-define or prove God.—*Taine.*
14. There are several faults which I intended to have enumerated.—*Webster.*
15. The miller was bound to have returned the flour.—*Kent.*
16. That he permitted not the winds of heaven
Visit her face too roughly.—*Shakespeare.*
17. He was made believe that neither the king's death nor imprisonment would help him.—*Sheffield.*
18. Their character is formed, and made appear.—*Butler.*
19. Scripture, you know, exhorts us to it,
Bids us to "seek peace, and ensue it."—*Swift.*
20. I found him better than I expected to have found him.—*Priestly's Grammar.*

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the infinitives:

1. What a tangled web we weave
When first we practise to deceive!—*Scott.*
2. The Son of man is come to seek and to save that which is lost.—*Bible.*
3. His hands refuse to labor.—*Bible.*

4. When thou doest alms, let not thy left hand know what thy right hand doeth.—*Bible*.
5. Give me liberty to know, to think, to believe, and to utter freely, according to conscience, above all other liberties.—*Milton*.
6. "Ah," cried the streamlet, "this is a heavenly light sent to tell me what I wish to know, and to guide my course."—*Conway*.
7. Delightful task ! to rear the tender thought,
 To teach the young idea how to shoot!—*Thomson*.
8. Teach me to feel another's woe, to hide the fault I see ;
 The mercy I to others show, that mercy show to me.—*Pope*.
9. To be or not to be, that is the question.—*Shakespeare*.
10. To reign is worth ambition.—*Milton*.
11. It is not from my lips that that strain of eloquence is this day to flow.—*Webster*.
12. To spend too much time in studies is sloth ; to use them too much for ornament is affectation ; to make judgment wholly by their rules is the humor of a scholar.—*Bacon*.
13. Read not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse ; but to weigh and consider.—*Bacon*.
14. Thy Hector, wrapt in everlasting sleep,
 Shall neither hear thee sigh nor see thee weep.—*Pope*.
15. To err is human—to forgive, divine.—*Pope*.

Participles.

RULE XV.—A participle modifies the noun which it limits or qualifies.

Remarks.

1. As a noun the participle may be used in either the nominative or the objective case; as, "*Reading* increases knowledge," "We may gain much information by *reading*."
2. When the participle is used as a noun, it may still be governed and modified in all respects as a verb. Thus, "Our *buying* the *books* so soon was commended." Here *buying* is used as a noun, but it is also modified by the objective *books*, and the adverb *soon*.

3. A participle used as a noun may be limited by a possessive; as, "Much depends on *our studying* diligently." *Studying* is here used as a noun, and it is limited by *our* in the possessive case.

4. A participle is sometimes used independently after a verb in the infinitive mode; as, "*To be* always *fretting* spoils the temper."

5. The participle may be followed by a noun or a pronoun used independently; as, "His being an *officer* protected him."

6. Care should be taken not to mistake the participle for the adjective, or the adjective for the participle. Thus, in the sentences "He is *gone*," "He has been *gone* three days," "I am *indebted* to you," "I am *obliged* to you for the favor," the words *gone* (meaning absent), *indebted*, and *obliged* are all adjectives. But in the sentences "He has *gone*," "I am *obliged* to go," *gone* and *obliged* are participles, and as such each with its auxiliary is a verb.

Cautions.

1. The perfect participle, and not the past tense, should be used with the auxiliaries *have* and *be* in the different modes and tenses. Thus, "He *has come*," "He *might have written*," and not "He *has went*," "He *might have wrote*."

2. The past tense, and not the perfect participle, is used to express past time. Thus, "I *saw* the fire," not "I *seen* the fire."

3. When the participle is preceded by an article, and generally when preceded by an adjective, it is followed by the preposition *of*; as, "The singing *of* the song pleased the visitors," "That reading *of* the poem was correct."

Note.—When the article and the preposition are both omitted, the meaning is usually the same as when both are used, though not always, as is evident in the sentence, "We spent an hour in hearing the witness."

4. When the thought can be more elegantly expressed by the infinitive than by the participle, use the infinitive. Thus, "Elevating our associates simply that we may destroy them is cruel," should be "To elevate our associates simply that we may destroy them is cruel."

5. So place the participial phrase that the meaning of the sentence may be clear. Thus, instead of "Reading the paper an account of the shipwreck was seen," say, "While reading the paper I saw an account of the shipwreck."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—Has the mail came yet?

The sentence is incorrect, because *came*, in the past tense, is used with the auxiliary *have*. The perfect participle *come* should be substituted for *came*, according to *Rule XV., Caution 1.*

1. The water in the pail is froze solid. 2. Has the train went by? 3. They were come into a place called Golgotha. 4. They refused doing so. 5. The taking property which is not ours is theft. 6. We could hear the booming of the guns, resting in our tent. 7. There is no charity in the giving money to those who do not need it. 8. I thought of my past life, sitting in my chair. 9. Many persons think the studying Greek is useless for children.

10. Cæsar carried off the treasures which his opponent had neglected taking with him.—*Goldsmith.*

11. Nor is it wise complaining.—*Cowper.*

12. It requires no nicety of ear, as in the distinguishing of tones or measuring time.—*Sheridan.*

13. Artaxerxes could not refuse pardoning him.—*Goldsmith.*

14. What prevents such worthless fellows passing for fine gentlemen but the good sense of other men?—*Addison.*

15. In punishing of this, we overthrow
The laws of nations, and of nature too.—*Dryden.*

16. Garcilasso was master of the language spoke by the Incas.—*Robertson.*

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the participles:

1. Life is as tedious as a twice-told tale
Vexing the ears of a drowsy man.—*Shakespeare.*

2. Learning is like a river, whose head, being far in the land, is at first rising little and easily viewed.—*Feltham*.
3. True politeness is the spirit of benevolence showing itself in a refined way.—*H. W. Beecher*.
4. This mournful truth is everywhere confessed:
Slow rises worth by poverty depressed.—*Sam. Johnson*.
5. When a man has not a good reason for doing a thing, he has a good reason for letting it alone.—*Scott*.
6. Many a word at random spoken
May soothe or wound a heart that's broken.—*Scott*.
7. Of all the myriad moods of mind
That through the soul come thronging,
What one was e'er so dear, so kind,
So beautiful, as longing!—*Lowell*.
8. I have no more pleasure in hearing a man attempting wit and failing, than in seeing a man trying to leap over a ditch and tumbling into it.—*Dr. Johnson*.
9. A vile conceit in pompous words expressed
Is like a clown in regal purple dressed.—*Pope*.
10. The heights by great men gained and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight.—*Longfellow*.
11. The stoical scheme of supplying our wants by lopping off our desires, is like cutting off our feet when we want shoes.—*Swift*.

Adverbs.

RULE XVI.—*Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, participles, or other adverbs.*

Remarks.

1. An adverb may modify a phrase or a clause; as, “The bird flew directly *over the house*,” “Truly, this is a wonderful sight.” In the first sentence the adverb *directly* modifies the phrase *over the house*; in the second sentence the adverb *truly* may be said to modify the whole sentence.

Another method of disposing of such adverbs as *truly*, *like-wise*, *also*, *too*, *even*, etc., is to call them adverbs of emphasis or addition, modifying the sentence.

2. Some adverbs are used independently; as, "Well, let us go," "Now, let us begin," "There were four present."

3. The adverbs *yes*, *yea*, *ay*, *no*, *nay*, when used in answer to questions, are usually equivalent to entire propositions. They are, however, parsed as adverbs used independently.

The word *amen* may be parsed in the same manner.

4. The word modified by the adverb is sometimes omitted; as, "Down, soothless insulter!"—that is, "*Fall down*" or "*Get down*."

When such adverbs are followed by *with*, the two words become a verb; as "*Down with the traitor!*" "*Up with the ensign of liberty!*"

5. An adverbial phrase should be parsed as a single expression only when the words cannot be parsed separately. In such sentences as "They walk hand in hand," the first word *hand* is a noun in the objective case after a preposition understood. It means, "*with hand placed in hand*."

6. A conjunctive adverb not only connects two clauses, but it also modifies a verb in each; as, "I will go home *when* school is dismissed." In this sentence *when* connects the two clauses and modifies the verb in each.

7. *There* is by some writers called an expletive when it does not limit some other word. It is properly an adverb used independently.

8. In such expressions as "scalding hot," "freezing cold," "wondrous high," "dripping wet," etc., the words *scalding*, *freezing*, *wondrous*, and *dripping* are adverbs modifying the adjectives following.

All words used as adverbs should be parsed as adverbs, whether having the adverbial form or not.

9. In the common style the adverbs *here*, *there*, and *where* are used, instead of *hither*, *thither* and *whither*, to modify verbs of motion.

Cautions.

1. An adverb should not be used as an adjective. Thus, "The rose smells sweetly," "She looks charmingly," should be "The rose smells *sweet*," "She looks *charming*."

2. Adverbs should be so placed as to show clearly what words they modify. Thus, "Every one cannot afford to keep a coach," should be "Not every one can afford to keep a coach."

3. An adverb should not be placed between *to* and the remainder of the infinitive. Thus, "They tried to evenly divide the money," should be "They tried to divide the money evenly."

4. Special care should be taken to place the adverbs *only*, *chiefly*, *merely*, *solely*, and others of similar signification in such position that the meaning of the sentence may not be misunderstood. Thus, "I only have one book" is incorrect, as the word *only* is meant to modify *one*. The sentence should be, "I have only one book." "He chiefly did this for our amusement," should be "He did this chiefly for our amusement," *chiefly* modifying the adverbial element *for our amusement*.

5. When *no* is used as an adverb, it can modify comparatives only, as "*no more*," "*no better*," etc. It should not be used instead of *not*. Thus, "I do not care whether he goes or *no*," should be "I do not care whether he goes or *not*."

6. The adverb *ever*, when it follows such words as *rarely* and *seldom*, is preceded by *if*, and the adverb *never* in such cases is preceded by *or*. Thus, "Rarely, if ever," "Seldom, if ever," "Rarely, or never," are all good English forms."

7. When negation is intended, but one negative adverb should be used. Thus, "He does *not* want *nothing*," should be "He does *not* want *anything*."

But when affirmation is intended, *not* is properly used with a word having a negative prefix; as, "The task is *not disagreeable*."

Note.—When it is desired to make an expression emphatic, a negative may be repeated; as, "We will never lay down our arms—never, never, never!"

8. The adverb *how* and the words *how* *that* should not be used instead of the conjunction *that*. Thus, instead of "They said *how* they would go," say, "They said *that* they would go."

9. *Where* and *when* should not be used instead of *which* and its adjuncts. Thus, "There were few schools *where* we found perfect order," should be "There were few schools *in which* we found perfect order." Also, "I have forgotten the date *when* he came," should be "I have forgotten the date *at which* he came."

10. *From* should not be used before *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*, as it is already implied in these words.

Note.—Custom, to some extent, seems to sanction these phrases, and some good writers use them, but it is best to omit *from*.

11. Avoid the use of the vulgarisms '*most* for *almost*, *like* for *as*,' *way* for *away*, *illy* for *ill*, *directly* for *as soon as*. Thus, "We can *ill* afford," not "*illy* afford;" "We were *almost* thrown over the bridge," not "We were '*most* thrown," etc.

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*The pupils seem to be nearly dressed alike.*

The sentence is incorrect, because the adverb *nearly* modifies *alike*; it should therefore be placed next to it, according to *Rule XVI., Cau-*
tion 2.

1. My foot slipped and I pretty near fell.
2. Never was a fleet more completely equipped, nor never had a nation more sanguine hopes of success.
3. I only have one apple.
4. Pupils should be taught to carefully spell the words.
5. Bring the book here to me.
6. It is not possible continually to study.
7. From whence cometh my help?
8. The vessel came safely into port.
9. The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually.
10. Oh no; she never goes nowhere.
11. I would like to see you very much.
12. I never saw a dog with such a bushy tail before.
13. I only came to ask you a question.
14. How are you? Tolerable well, thank you.
15. What farther need be said on this subject?
16. Directly he comes we shall go.
17. She has said to me she is powerful weak.

18. The law does not undertake to compel him so to do, or punish him for not so doing.—*Kent*.
19. There is nothing more admirable nor more useful.—*Horne Tooke*.
20. One can scarce think that Pope was capable of epic or tragic poetry.—*Blair*.
21. At this place the mountains are extraordinary high and steep.
History of Virginia.
22. I am exceeding joyful.—*Bible*.
23. On rather a narrow strip of land.—*Everett*.
24. Most men dream, but all do not.—*Beattie's Moral Science*.
25. Ye know how that a good while ago God made choice among us.—*Bible*.
26. Can I make men live, whether they will or no?—*Shakespeare*.
27. We seldom or ever see those forsaken who trust in God.—*Atterbury*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the adverbs:

1. Man wants but little here below,
Nor wants that little long.—*Goldsmith*.
2. 'Tis not in folly not to scorn a fool;
And scarce in human wisdom to do more.—*Young*.
3. How sleep the brave who sink to rest
By all their country's wishes blessed!—*Collins*.
4. It is well to think well; it is divine to act well.—*Mann*.
5. Generally, also, a downright fact may be told in a plain way.—*Ruskin*.
6. Peradventure he is asleep, and must be awakened.—*Bible*.
7. Loveliest of lovely things are they
On earth that soonest pass away.—*Bryant*.
8. Modesty seldom resides in a breast that is not enriched with nobler virtues.—*Goldsmith*.
9. There is no flock, however watched and tended,
But one dead lamb is there.—*Longfellow*.

10. There beamed a smile
 So fixed, so holy, from that cherub brow,
 Death gazed, and left it there.—*Mrs. Sigourney.*
11. Vice is a monster of so frightful mien,
 As, to be hated, needs but to be seen;
 But seen too oft, familiar with her face,
 We first endure, then pity, then embrace.—*Pope.*
12. No man can safely command that has not truly learned to obey.
 —*Thomas à Kempis.*
13. A true good man there was there of religion,
 Pious and poor, the parson of the town.—*Chaucer.*
14. The stronger the mind the greater its ambition.—*Addison.*

Prepositions.

RULE XVII.—A preposition shows the relation between its object and some preceding word.

Remarks.

1. The preceding word, or antecedent, is the word limited by the preposition and its object, used as an *adjective* or an *adverbial phrase*. Thus, in the sentence, “The tree by the river was uprooted,” the antecedent is *tree*, and it is modified by the adjective element *by the river*. Again, in the sentence, “The tree stood by the river,” the antecedent is *stood*, and it is modified by the adverbial element *by the river*. In each sentence *river* is the object of the preposition.

2. The preposition is sometimes omitted after verbs of *giving*, *procuring*, and a few others; as, “Give (to) me the book,” “Get (for) me the pail,” “Teach (to) me the lesson.”

3. The preposition is also omitted before nouns denoting *time*, *place*, *value*, *measure*; as, “We studied () an hour,” “The house is opposite () the grove,” “The book is worth () a dollar,” “We have travelled () twenty miles.”

Note.—In the third example *worth* is an adjective, as will readily be seen by placing an adverbial modifier before it; as, “It is well worth the money.”

When the preposition is not expressed, the object may be

parsed as being in the objective case after the preposition understood.

4. Sometimes the antecedent term of a preposition is omitted. Thus, "They will rise, to a man, and defend us"—that is, "They will rise (reckoning or counting) to a man," etc.

5. In such expressions as *in vain*, *in short*, etc., it is best to supply the ellipsis where possible, and parse the preposition as showing the relation between its object understood and its antecedent. Thus, "He begged *in vain*" is equivalent to "He begged *in vain (words)* or *in a vain (manner)*."

6. In exclamatory sentences the antecedent is frequently omitted; as, "Oh for a cup of cold water!" is equivalent to "Oh (I long) for a cup of cold water!"

7. A preposition is sometimes used simply to introduce a phrase; as, "For him to treat us so unkindly is very unfair." In such cases the preposition has no antecedent.

Cautions.

1. Use *between* or *betwixt* in referring to two objects or collections, and *among* or *amongst* in referring to more than two. Thus, "*Between* you and me there must be no deceit," "*Among* the pupils he had no superior."

Note.—Sentences may be cited from good writers in which this caution has not been strictly observed. Note the following examples: "Between two or more authors different readers will differ."—*Campbell*. "Betwixt the slender boughs came glimpses of her ivory neck."—*Bryant*.

2. *In* should not be used instead of *into* when entrance is denoted. Thus, "Come *into* the house."

When *into* is used, it must be followed by the object expressed. Thus, "Come *into* the room," or "Come *in*" (adv.), but never "Come *into*," as *into* is not used as an adverb.

3. The preposition should not be omitted except when sanctioned by good usage. Thus, instead of "He fled the country," say, "He fled from the country."

4. Avoid the vulgarism of using *to* instead of *at*. Thus, instead of "We are *to* home," say, "We are *at* home."

5. Avoid the use of *for* before the infinitive; as, "What went ye out *for* to see." This construction was formerly allowable, but it is not used at present.

6. Care should be taken to use the proper preposition.

A few of the most important combinations are here given :

<i>Access to.</i>	<i>Expert at</i> (before a noun), <i>in</i> (before a participle).
<i>Accuse of.</i>	<i>Independent of.</i>
<i>Acquaint with.</i>	<i>Inseparable from.</i>
<i>Acquit of.</i>	<i>Lean against</i> or <i>on</i> a support, <i>to</i> an opinion.
<i>Agreeable to.</i>	<i>Listen for</i> expected sound, <i>to</i> present sound.
<i>Angry with a person, at a thing.</i>	<i>Partake of</i> or <i>in</i> .
<i>Arrive at or in.</i>	<i>Placed in.</i>
<i>Ask of a person, for what is wanted.</i>	<i>Preferable to.</i>
<i>Averse to or from.</i>	<i>Profit by.</i>
<i>Believe in or on.</i>	<i>Put</i> (meaning <i>placed</i>) <i>in</i> .
<i>Call at a place, on a person, for a thing.</i>	<i>Reconcile a thing with</i> , a person <i>to</i> .
<i>Compare with in quality, to for illustration.</i>	<i>Rejoice at</i> or <i>in</i> news, etc., <i>with</i> a person.
<i>Concur with a person, in an opinion.</i>	<i>Rid of.</i>
<i>Confide in.</i>	<i>Smile on</i> favorably, <i>at</i> unfavorably.
<i>Contend with a person, against an obstacle.</i>	<i>Strive against</i> an obstacle.
<i>Copy from a thing, after a person.</i>	<i>Strive with</i> a person, <i>for</i> an object desired.
<i>Defend others from, ourselves against.</i>	<i>Struggle with</i> a person, <i>for</i> an object desired.
<i>Die of a disease, by an instrument.</i>	<i>Weary in</i> or <i>of</i> .
<i>Differ from in quality, with in opinion.</i>	<i>Wait at</i> a table, <i>on</i> a person, <i>for</i> what is expected.
<i>Disagree to a proposal, with a person.</i>	<i>Unite to</i> (transitive).
<i>Disappointed in a thing obtained, of a thing not obtained.</i>	<i>Unite with</i> (intransitive).
<i>Equivalent to.</i>	<i>Useful to</i> a person, <i>for</i> a purpose.

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences :

Model.—*The twelve jurors disagreed between themselves.*

The sentence is incorrect, because the word *between* should not be used when reference is made to more than two; the preposition *among* should be substituted, according to *Rule XVII, Caution 1.*

1. Be reconciled first to your brother. 2. Neither of the three boys profit from experience. 3. The property was divided between the three sons. 4. Come in the room and take a seat. 5. I was at New York when this happened. 6. The whole difficulty originated from a misunderstanding. 7. The convicts were banished the country. 8. Be careful with your books. 9. I concur with that opinion. 10. It is said the lady died with a fever. 11. Gibbon was engaged with his work about twenty years. 12. Don't meddle in your neighbor's affairs. 13. Some of the lower animals have a capacity of thinking. 14. Is the person whom you speak of one in whom we can rely? 15. Is he one on whom you can confide?

16. You have bestowed your favors to the most deserving persons.—*Swift*.

17. Which is found among every species of liberty.—*Hume*.

18. Be worthy me as I am worthy you.—*Dryden*.

19. About two months ago he went out of a fine morning with a bundle in his hand.—*Irving*.

20. My mistress had a daughter of nine years old.—*Swift*.

21. But how short are my expressions of its excellency!—*Baxter*.

22. They may not be unworthy the attention of young men.—*Kirkham*.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the prepositions:

1. He that goes a-borrowing goes a-sorrowing.—*Franklin*.

2. From peak to peak, the rattling crags among, leaps the live thunder.—*Byron*.

3. Oh for a lodge in some vast wilderness!—*Couper*.

4. As the mountains are round about Jerusalem, so the Lord is round about his people.—*Psalm cxxv. 2*.

5. The quality of mercy is not strained;
It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven,
Upon the place beneath.—*Shakespeare*.

6. I hold, in truth, with him who sings
To one clear harp in divers tones,
That men may rise on stepping-stones
Of their dead selves to higher things.—*Tennyson*.

7. An effort made for the happiness of others lifts us above ourselves.—*Mrs. L. M. Child.*
8. By ceaseless action all that is subsists.—*Cowper.*
9. E'en the oak thrives by the rude concussion of the storm.—*Cowper.*
10. And I have made a pilgrimage from far.—*Hosmer.*
11. At midnight, in his guarded tent,
 The Turk was dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
 Should tremble at his power.—*Halleck.*
12. Ishmael's wandering race, that rode
 On camels o'er the spicy tract that lay
From Persia to the Red Sea coast.—*Pollok.*
13. How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood,
 When fond recollection presents them to view!—*Woodworth.*
14. I bring fresh showers for the thirsty flowers,
 From the sea and the stream.—*Shelley.*
15. Oh, my love's like the melody
 That's sweetly played in tune.—*Burns.*

Conjunctions.

RULE XVIII.—*Conjunctions connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.*

Remarks.

1. Conjunctions connect words in the same construction; thus, *adjectives* with *adjectives*, *verbs* with *verbs*, *nouns* or *pronouns* with *nouns* or *pronouns*, etc.; as, “He was a *wise* and *discriminating* judge,” “Slowly and *cautiously* we proceeded on our way.”
2. A conjunction is sometimes used merely to introduce a sentence; as, “*That* we shall hear from him again is probable.”
3. Conjunctive adverbs connect the clauses between which they are placed in the same manner as conjunctions; as, “The blossoms will appear *when* winter has passed away.”

4. Conjunctions are sometimes omitted; as, "Had I known he was present I would have remained"—*i. e.*, "*If* I had known," etc.

5. A clause introduced by a subordinate conjunction performs the office of a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*, the clause being used either as the subject or as one of the modifying elements—adjective, objective, or adverbial; as, "I know that they *will come*" (obj.), "That they *will come* (sub.) is certain."

6. In sentences which imply comparison there is usually an ellipsis which should be supplied in parsing. Thus, "He is taller than I (am)," "Though (he is) uncultured he is kind," "They are shrewder than (it is shrewd) to think so."

Cautions.

1. In a series of similar terms the conjunctions are usually omitted, except between the last two, and commas take the place of the omitted conjunctions; as, "Wheat, corn, oats, and rye were cultivated."

When great emphasis is required the conjunction may be repeated; as, "*Neither* death, *nor* life, *nor* angels, *nor* principalities, *nor* powers."—*Bible*.

2. *Than* should be placed after *else*, *other*, *rather*, and all comparatives; as, "I could believe no other evidence *than* this," "Gold is heavier *than* silver."

3. When verbs are connected they usually agree in mode, tense, and form, or have separate subjects expressed. Thus, "They read and write well," "He recited, but he has gone again."

Note.—Many examples might be quoted from good writers to show that this caution has not been at all times faithfully observed.

4. Two connected parts of a sentence, referring to a third part, should be made to agree in construction with that third part and with each other. Thus, "They always have and always will be admired," should be "They always have been and always will be admired."

5. After expressions denoting *doubt*, *fear*, or *denial*, use *that*

instead of *but, but that, or lest*; as, "I fear *that* he is hurt," "I do not doubt *that* he will come."

6. When correlatives are employed, care must be taken to use those which correspond. Thus:

Either . . . or; as, "We must *either* study *or* fail."

Neither . . . nor; as, "We are *neither* wholly wise *nor* wholly foolish."

Whether . . . or; as, "Ascertain *whether* he will go *or* not."

Both . . . and; as, "Both the boys *and* the girls are studious."

If . . . then; as, "*If* this plan fail, *then* let us try another."

Though . . . yet; as, "*Though* He was rich, *yet* for our sake He became poor."

Not only . . . but also; as, "*Not only* John, *but also* his brother, came."

As (adv.) . . . as (conj.), to express equality; as, "My apple is *as* large *as* yours."

So (adv.) . . . as (conj.), to deny equality; as, "You are not *so* tall *as* I am."

As (conj.) . . . so (adv.), to express equality; as, "As the teacher is, *so* is the school."

So (adv.) . . . as (conj.), to express a comparison; as, "He was *so* kind *as* to help me."

So (adv.) . . . that (conj.), to express a consequence; as, "So live *that* you may not fear criticism."

7. Use conjunctions to connect words or parts of sentences of similar construction. Thus, instead of "*To study* grammar and *neglecting to apply* it is of little benefit," should be "*To study* grammar and *neglect* to apply it is of little benefit."

Exercise.

Correct the following sentences:

Model.—*This is no other but the gate of paradise.*

The sentence is incorrect, because, according to *Rule XVIII, Caution 2*, *than* should be used after the word *other*.

1. As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written.
2. Anger glances into the breast of a wise man, but will rest only in the bosom of fools.
3. I must be as candid as to own I have been mis-

taken. 4. I do not know but what he is the man I am looking for. 5. Not only his time, but his money, was lost. 6. Sincerity is as valuable, and even more valuable, than knowledge. 7. The cabs of London are not as well managed as those of Paris.

8. We now found that without such documents (passports) we could get no guides either among the Tartars or the Chinese.

Pumpelly.

9. Many of Lord Jeffrey's reviews are little else but special pleading.—*Tuckerman.*

10. Cyaxares was no sooner in the throne but he was engaged in a terrible war.—*Rollin.*

11. I have no doubt but that the pistol is a relic of the buccaneers.

Irving.

12. He looked as though he could eat up an ox and pick his teeth with the horns.—*Irving.*

13. O fairest flower, no sooner blown but blasted!—*Milton.*

14. These paths and bowers, doubt not but our joint hands Will keep from wilderness.—*Milton.*

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the conjunctions:

1. Beautiful and salutary as a religious influence is the sound of a distant Sabbath-bell in the country.—*Willis.*

2. Young heads are giddy, and young hearts are warm,
And make mistakes for manhood to reform.—*Cowper.*

3. That you have wronged me doth appear in this.—*Shakespeare.*

4. I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the Barbarians, both to the wise and to the unwise.—*Romans i. 14.*

5. 'Tis midnight's holy hour, and silence now
Is brooding like a gentle spirit o'er
The still and pulseless world.—*Prentice.*

6. Human beings are composed not of reason only, but of imagination also, and sentiments, and that is neither wasted nor misapplied which is appropriated to the purpose of giving right direction to sentiments and opening proper springs of feeling in the heart.—*Webster.*

7. We recognize books by their bindings, though the true and essential characteristics lie inside.—*Ruskin*.

8. Order is Heaven's first law, and this confessed,
Some are, and must be, wiser than the rest,
More rich, more wise; but who infers from hence
That such are happier, shocks all common sense.—*Pope*.

9. That it is not good for man to be alone is true in more views of our species than one; and society gives strength to our reason as well as polish to our manners.—*Franklin*.

10. And I have loved thee, Ocean!—*Byron*.

Interjections.

RULE XIX.—*An interjection has no grammatical relation to any other word.*

Remarks.

1. Any word when used to express emotion is an interjection; as, “*Hark! hark!* the lark at heaven's gate sings.”

2. The interjection is sometimes followed by the objective form; as, “*Ah me!*” “*Oh for a cup of cold water!*” In such cases there is an ellipsis, the expressions meaning, “*Ah! pity me,*” “*Oh I long for a cup of cold water!*”

3. By most writers *O* is used only before other words in direct address or to express a wish; as, “*O come to me quickly,*” “*O Lord, permit thy servant to depart.*”

Oh is used by most writers to express some strong emotion, as *pain, sorrow, or surprise*. Thus, “*Oh, how miserable I am!*” “*Oh, what a beautiful sunset!*”

This distinction between *O* and *oh* is, however, not strictly observed.

Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the interjections:

1. Hark! hark! to God the chorus breaks
From every host, from every fern.—*White*.

2. Ah! who can tell how hard it is to climb
The steep where Fame's proud temples shine afar?—*Beattie*.
3. Oh that men should put an enemy into their mouths to steal
away their brains!—*Shakespeare*.
4. Oh for a world in principle as chaste as this is gross and selfish!
—*Cowper*.
5. Oh for that warning voice!—*Young*.
6. What! this a sleeve? 'tis like a demi-cannon.—*Shakespeare*.
7. Heigh-ho! sing heigh-ho! unto the green holly;
Most friendship is feigning, most loving is folly.—*Shakespeare*.

General Rule.

In the expression of thought those words should be used, and that arrangement of them, which will best convey the meaning intended.

General Cautions.

I. Avoid the use of unnecessary words.

Remark.—No word should be used except such as will add to the clearness, correctness, and force of the sentence.

Exercise.

Name the unnecessary words in the following sentences, and reconstruct each sentence:

1. I have got two dollars in my pocket. 2. There is another and a wiser way. 3. We went to Cape May and to Long Branch. 4. Have you got to go? 5. One is equally as large as the other. 6. If I am not mistaken, I have met you before. 7. Let us add the columns up. 8. Rise up, and remain standing. 9. The boy fell off from the horse. 10. Jump down into the ditch. 11. An isthmus connects two larger bodies of land together. 12. When I first began to study it was irksome. 13. The laborers are now being paid a dollar a day. 14. This here book is not the one I want. 15. New York is the largest of any city in America. 16. Bring the prisoner here to the bar.
17. Our debts and our sins are generally greater than we think for
—*Franklin*.

18. Those nice shades by which virtues and vices approach each one another.—*Murray*.

19. Such have no other law but the will of their prince.—*Kent*.

20. The Continental army moved down to Charleston in the latter end of the year.—*Ramsey*.

II. Avoid the use of improper ellipses.

Remark.—No word that is needed to express the sense intended should be omitted.

Exercise.

Supply the necessary words in the following sentences:

1. The speech is worthy the man that made it. 2. A squirrel can climb a tree quicker than a boy. 3. A man bought a book, slate, and penholder. 4. He was seen sit on the doorstep. 5. It is easier to spend money than get it. 6. His stories are as hard to believe as Baron Munschausen. 7. We attended the meeting, and have learned much. 8. How can we distinguish the wise from ignorant ones? 9. I could not determine whether it would be cheaper to live in the city or country. 10. He was noted both as an historian and novelist.

11. This is what best became us to do.—*Swift*.

12. As much propriety must be observed in the dress of the old as young.—*Addison*.

13. Not a fence or fruit tree was to be seen.—*Irving*.

14. I know thee not, nor ever saw, till now,
Sight more detestable than him and thee.—*Milton*.

15. For thou art a girl as much brighter than her,
As she was a poet sublimer than me.—*Prior*.

16. I have made no alteration or addition to it, nor shall I ever.—*Mill*.

17. He then addressed to his troops a few words of encouragement as customary with him on the eve of an engagement.—*Prescott*.

III. Avoid an improper arrangement.

Remarks.—1. The preposition should be placed as near its object as possible.

2. All modifying elements, whether adjective, adverbial, or

objective, should be placed as near as possible to the words which they modify.

Note.—The improper arrangement of words in a sentence often renders the meaning obscure, ambiguous, or equivocal.

Exercise.

Reconstruct the following sentences, so as to express the intended meaning clearly:

1. The settler here the savage slew.
2. His sire butchered to make a Roman holiday!
3. I would like to come very much.
4. The farmer has almost lost all his hay by the freshet.
5. I only came to ask a question or two.
6. We not only obtained Louisiana, but Florida also, by purchase.
7. William has only gone, not his brother.
8. The two classes seemed to be nearly advanced alike.
9. He has bought himself a black pair of gloves.
10. A fresh supply of goods has just been received.
11. Give me a fresh drink of water.
12. The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually.
13. You have all books, I see.
14. An abominable little, ugly boy came in to ask us.
15. We expected him soon to reach here.
16. You are to slowly raise the trap while I hold the sack.
17. He seems clearly to understand his business.
18. There is still a better way.

19. At the same time there are some defects which must be acknowledged in his "Odyssey."—*Blair*.
20. By this system money became plenty, such as it was.—*Irving*.
21. I shall be happy always to see my friends.—*Magazine*.
22. A little, ragged boy, aged nine years, was discovered on the steamer.—*Newspaper*.
23. The Greeks, fearing to be surrounded on all sides, wheeled about and halted, with the river on their backs.—*Goldsmith*.
24. But every man cannot distinguish between pedantry and poetry; every man, therefore, is not fit to innovate.—*Dryden*.
25. I trade both with the living and the dead for the enrichment of our native language.—*Dryden*.
26. He's not the man to tamely acquiesce.—*Bolingbroke*.
27. We could see the lake over the woods two or three miles ahead, and that the river made an abrupt turn southward.—*Thoreau*.
28. Though some of the European rulers may be females, when

spoken of altogether they may be correctly classified under the denomination "kings."—*Dean Alford.*

IV. Avoid the use of words having an improper form.

Remark.—The words and forms most frequently confounded are—

1. *Transitive verbs and intransitive*; *as, sit and set, learn and teach, etc.*
2. *Adjectives and adverbs.*
3. *Adverbs and relative pronouns.*
4. *The past perfect tense indicative and the past tense indicative.*
5. *The subjunctive present and the indicative present.*
6. *The past indicative and the present indicative in stating what is always true or untrue.*

Exercise.

Reconstruct the following sentences, so as to express the intended meaning clearly:

1. We can learn the boy some new tricks.
2. The river has raised ten inches since the rain.
3. Set down in the first seat you come to.
4. The ship lays in the harbor.
5. You have laid on the floor long enough.
6. Leave me lie here just as I am.
7. I am almost froze this morning.
8. We have less questions than you.
9. Read slow and distinct.
10. Some of the boys recite remarkable well.
11. It illy become him to tell that tale.
12. Such events are of very seldom occurrence.
13. Let us hear nothing farther on this question.
14. This is the place where we found it.
15. If I am here to-morrow I will attend to the work.
16. The train came before we reached the station.
17. The farmer did not believe that the earth was round.
18. The protest laid quietly on the table.—*Irving.*
19. He knew not what it was to die.—*Byron.*
20. Let the ball lay just as I placed it.
21. How is your health ? Pretty well, I thank you.
22. Set up straight, boys.
23. Is this the page where the passage occurs ?
24. If I am living in that day, there shall be no failure if I can prevent it.
25. Though the fact be extra-

ordinary, it certainly did happen. 26. Though Virtue appear severe, she is truly amiable.

V. Avoid the use of SHALL for WILL, and WILL for SHALL.

Remark.—In statements—

1. *Will* in the first person expresses a *promise*; as, “I *will* give you the book.”

2. *Will* in the first person also expresses a *resolution*; as, “I *will* go”—that is, “I am *resolved* to go.”

Shall in the first person *foretells*, or expresses what will take place; as, “I *shall* go to-day.”

Will in the second and the third person *foretells*; as, “You *will* be pleased with the music,” “He *will* pay the money.”

Shall in the second and the third person expresses a *command*, a *promise*, or a *threat*; as,

(a.) You *shall* have the money (*promise*);

(b.) Thou *shall* love thy neighbor as thyself (*command*);

(c.) The boy *shall* not do it (*command or threat*).

Remark.—In questions—

Shall in the first person asks *permission* or the *wish of another*; as, “Shall I sing for you?”

Will in the second and the third person anticipates a *wish* or an *intention*; as, “Will you do the work for me?”—that is, “Is it your wish or intention to do the work for me?”

Shall in the third person asks the *wish of another*; as, “Shall he bring the book to you?”—that is, “Do you wish that he shall bring the book to you?”

Would is subject to the same rules as *will*, and *should* to the same as *shall*.

When *shall* is the proper form for the first person, *will* is correct for the second and the third.

When *will* is the proper form for the first person, *shall* is correct for the second and the third.

*Exercise.**Correct the following sentences :*

1. Ye will not come to me, that ye might have eternal life. 2. Will we go before school dismisses ? 3. If I do not study I will be punished. 4. I hope that we will meet him at the lecture. 5. How often I will see you to-day ! 6. Perhaps you shall hear a good lecture. 7. Will we hear a good lecture if we go ? 8. I think I will receive the money to-morrow. 9. I will be at home this evening. 10. Will we find any fish in that stream ? 11. I would think no person could object. 12. By keeping him here we will do them a great good. 13. I shall thank you to do me the favor. 14. They should be obliged to you if you would assist them. 15. Would we hear a good lecture if we were to go ? 16. Shall you accept the proposition ? 17. I hope that they shall come to see us. 18. I will be very happy to see you. 19. If you vote for me I will be elected.
20. Where will we find such merry groups now-a-days?—*Irving.*

*General Exercise.**Correct the following where necessary :*

1. Found, a gold watch, by a gentleman with steel hands. 2. If a man smite his servant and he dies, he shall surely be put to death. 3. In unity consists the welfare and security of society. 4. It is well-nigh on to twenty miles to the city. 5. The line AB on to the line BC equals the line AC. 6. We are doing fine in our new position. 7. Some one has broke my slate and stole my pencil. 8. The man is a German, but he speaks the French and English language. 9. Young men desirous to obtain a practical education can be accommodated at this institution. 10. I lay the book on the desk a half hour ago.
11. We never have and never will be forced into such measures. 12. I expected to have heard from the capital before. 13. This baking-powder is warranted to make the bread raise. 14. These farms not only produce oats, but corn and wheat also. 15. She is the daughter of a poor widow woman. 16. Let us go into the country—you and me. 17. The executor is a widow. 18. How can the calf distinguish his mother's lowing from that of a dozen other cows ? 19. Can you name the attorney-generals of the United States ? 20. The natives of Germany are called Germen.

21. Twelve pennies equal one shilling. 22. Nine 5s are equal to five 9s. 23. Patience and faith, like diligence, removes mountains. 24. They are the same persons who assisted us yesterday. 25. The third and last car were thrown off the track. 26. We are the most intelligent people who ever lived. 27. They all resembled each other so much that one could almost believe they were of one family. 28. Men are speaking now who have gone to their final account twenty centuries ago. 29. He was, perhaps, more distinguished than any man for the eloquence of silence. 30. Neither despise the poor or envy the rich.

31. I wish that summer was here. 32. Let him that standeth take heed lest he falls. 33. You will find these kind of apples excellent. 34. Here was a man brought home by a Newfoundland dog in his shirt-sleeves. 35. I wish I was at home. 36. When was America first discovered? 37. Have you got any money with you? 38. Some virtues are only seen in adversity. 39. Virtue and vice differ widely with each other. 40. Ovid was banished Rome by his patron Augustus.

41. I only recited once a day. 42. Who ever heard of such a trick being played? 43. He was paid a high compliment. 44. I saw La Fayette, he who fought for American independence. 45. It was my brother that you saw, not me. 46. They did not think of its being me. 47. Every one must strive to do their best. 48. Hoary Winter comes on apace, scattering abroad its cheerless charms. 49. When a mouse or a rat is caught, they of course try to get away. 50. Neither of us is willing to give up our book.

51. There was a certain householder which planted a vineyard. 52. They were rich once, but are poor now. 53. The servant took away the horse, which was unnecessary. 54. A dog is an intelligent animal. 55. Novelty produces in the mind a vivid and an agreeable emotion. 56. "Tis for a thousand pound." 57. The door was opened widely. 58. Bring me a fresh drink of water. 59. Our bullets glance harmlessly from the mark. 60. The wall is ten foot high.

61. Reason is superior to instinct; that belongs to the brute, this to man. 62. Time and tide waits for no man. 63. The rapidity of his movements were beyond example. 64. Nor want nor cold his course delay. 65. The fleet were seen off Cape May. 66. These rivers have sometimes overflowed their banks. 67. Heat will expand metals. 68. She could not be more queenly if she was a queen.

69. "I wish I was in Dixie!" 70. Neither the horse nor the ox are capable of reasoning.

71. When I asked, "Who can answer the question?" all shouted, "Me." 72. A fair wind is the cause of a vessel sailing. 73. I speak of Butler, he who wrote "Hudibras." 74. It was not us that played truant. 75. Every one must answer for themselves. 76. Everybody has their troubles. 77. The child whom we met is quite sick. 78. A butterfly, which thought himself an accomplished traveller, happened to alight on a beehive. 79. Earth existed first in a state of chaos. 80. I can speak both the French and German languages.

81. Read on the fourth and fifth page. 82. A pink is a delicate flower. 83. What sort of a bird is a grouse? 84. Macaulay is a better historian than a poet. 85. The clerk may make a memoranda of it. 86. I have lost my new pair of boots. 87. The company have just erected a fine brick four-story building. 88. Lake Superior is larger than any lake in the world. 89. Two negatives in English destroy one another. 90. The boy don't know anything about his lesson.

91. Geography is not as hard a study as arithmetic. 92. I can swim further out to sea than him. 93. I don't think any of them can read like me. 94. I am desirous to introduce to you my friend. 95. Wisdom, and not wealth, procure esteem. 96. He was very glad indeed to have met his friends. 97. I expected to have finished my work this morning. 98. I would not have let you gone to such a meeting. 99. That much has been proved. 100. Instruct him to carefully shun the danger.

General Exercise.

For Analysis and Parsing.

1. "You are a tyrant," he answered with a sigh.
2. "Stop!" said the driver, in a tone of anger.
3. "I do not mean," said the antiquary, "to intrude upon your lordship."
4. "A bird in the hand," says the old proverb, "is worth two in the bush."
5. So great was the demand for paper that the sovereigns of some countries, where the plant out of which it was made flourished, monopolized entirely its culture.

6. "All tickets, please," rang through the car.
7. I live as I did; I think as I did, I love you as I did.—*Swift*.
8. Deliver us from the nauseous repetition of *as* and *so*, which some *so-so* writers, I may call them *so*, are continually sounding in our ears.—*Felton*.
9. Pausing a while, thus to herself she mused.—*Milton*.
10. Oh that those lips had language!—*Cowper*.
11. There is no man that sinneth not.—*Bible*.
12. See the blind beggar dance, the cripple sing,
The sot a hero, lunatic a king.—*Pope*.
13. From liberty each nobler science sprung,
A Bacon brightened, and a Spenser sung.—*Savage*.
14. The why is plain as way to parish church.—*Shakespeare*.
15. A dainty plant is the ivy green,
That creepeth o'er ruins old,
Of right choice food are his meals, I ween,
In his cell so lone and cold.
The walls must be crumbled, the stones decayed,
To pleasure his dainty whim,
And the mouldering dust that years have made
Is a merry meal for him.—*Dickens*.
16. Close beside her, faintly moaning,
Fair and young a soldier lay,
Torn with shot and pierced with lances,
Bleeding slow his life away.—*Whittier*.
17. Down came the tree, nest, eagles, and all.—*Fontaine*.
18. His heart went pit-a-pat, but hers went pity Zekle.—*Lowell*
19. Laugh those who can, weep those who may.—*Scott*.
20. Now they wax and now they dwindle,
Whirling with the whirling spindle;
Twist ye, turn ye! even so
Mingle human bliss and woe.—*Scott*.
21. The piper loud and louder blew,
The dancers quick and quicker flew.—*Burns*.

22. The window jingled in its frame,
And through its many gaps of destitution
Dolorous moans and hollow sighings came,
Like those of dissolution.—*Hood*.
23. Overhead the dismal hiss
Of fiery darts in flaming volleys flew.—*Milton*.
24. Hands that the rod of empire might have swayed
Close at my elbow stir the lemonade.—*Holmes*.
25. Can storied urn or animated bust
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath ?
Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or Flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of death ?—*Gray*.
26. Away they went, pell-mell, hurry-skurry, wild buffalo, wild horse, wild huntsman, with clang and clatter, and whoop and halloo, that made the forest ring.—*Irving*.
27. This is the message that ye heard from the beginning, that we should love one another.—*Bible*.
28. Whatever is read differs from what is repeated.—*Swift*.
29. What ho ! thou genius of the clime, what ho !—*Dryden*.
30. Mark what it is his mind aims at in this question, and not what words he expresses.—*Locke*.
31. In singing, as in piping, you excel.—*Dryden*.
32. There brighter suns dispense serener light,
And milder moons imparadise the night.—*Montgomery*.
33. The beautiful strikes us as much by its novelty as the deformed itself.—*Burke*.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation treats of the use of points in dividing written composition.

The chief use of punctuation is to divide discourse into sentences, and these again into parts, in such a manner as will best show the relation of the several parts to one another.

Punctuation is based almost wholly on grammatical analysis. The same good judgment and accurate discrimination is needed, therefore, in the one as in the other.

The chief points used are the following:

Period,	Interrogation Point, . ?
Comma, ,	Exclamation Point, . !
Semicolon, . . . ;	Dash, -
Colon, :	Curves, ()
Quotation-Marks,	“ ”

The Period (.).

The following are the most important rules for the use of the period.

RULE I.—*Complete Sentences.*—A period should be placed at the end of every declarative or imperative sentence.

Ex.—“I am the teacher.” “Let me hear you recite.”

Remark.—The members of compound sentences are sometimes separated by periods; as, “The actual amount of money was smaller than we had expected. But we were not disappointed.”

RULE II.—Abbreviations.—A period should be placed after every abbreviated word.

Ex.—Jno., Dr., Sept., LL.D., Rev. Jos. Barnes, A. M., D. D.

Note.—1. When an abbreviation becomes a nickname, as *Ben*, *Will*, *Sue*, etc., it is not followed by a period.

2. Ordinal adjectives, as 4th, 7th, 10th, etc., are not abbreviations, but substituted forms for *fourth*, *seventh*, *tenth*, etc. No period, therefore, should be placed after them.

3. When the abbreviation is the last word of a declarative or an imperative sentence, only one period is necessary at the end of the sentence.

4. When the Roman numerals are used, a period is usually placed after each; as, *Chap. VI.*, *VII.*, and *VIII.*

RULE III.—Complete Expressions.—A period should be placed after headings, titles, signatures, imprints, advertisements, etc., when the expression is complete in itself.

Ex.—*Grammar. Coates's Speaker. William Henry Herbert. Porter & Coates, Philadelphia. Wanted, a good horse.*

Exercise.

Copy and punctuate the following, supplying capitals where necessary:

1. He that wants health wants everything
2. Philadelphia, Pa, Mar 4th, 1880
3. Hon J Ormond Wilsson, Supt Pub Instruction, Washington, D C
4. The Hon Thos Greenbank, D D, LLD, will preside to-night
5. Popular Astronomy by O M Mitchell D D
6. I have examined Chap VI, vol I, very carefully, and I am pleased with the arguments
7. Farm Ballads by Will Carlton
8. Messrs Porter & Coates, No 900 Chest St, Phila
9. Part III Chapter IV Bank Discount
10. Prof Henry L Adams, A M, Ph D

11. Ben Jonson was one of England's most gifted poets
12. Beauty itself is but the sensible image of the infinite—*Bancroft*
13. We speak of educating our children do we not know that our children also educate us—*Mrs Sigourney*

14. It takes a soul
 to move a body; it takes a high-souled man
 To move the masses—*Mrs Browning*

15. Clearness is a sort of genius for instrumentality It is the brain of the hand *Coleridge*

The Comma (,).

The comma denotes the least degree of separation.
 The following are the most important rules:

RULE I.—Compound Sentences.—A comma is used to separate the members of a compound sentence when the degree of separation is too slight for the use of a semicolon.

Ex.—“Times change, and we change with them.”

RULE II.—Relative Clauses.—Relative clauses which are explanatory or which present an additional thought, are set off by a comma, but when such clauses are restrictive in sense they are not so separated.

Remark.—Thus, in the sentence, “Our friend that came this morning is pleased with the prospect,” the clause introduced by “*that*” is restrictive, and is not set off by commas. But in the sentence, “John, who is an expert angler, caught many fish,” the clause introduced by “*who*” adds another thought, and is therefore set off by commas.

Note.—The restrictive clause limits its antecedent to some particular meaning, while the non-restrictive is equivalent to an additional thought.

RULE III.—Dependent Clauses.—Dependent clauses are usually set off by commas.

Ex.—"If you desire to hear her sing, she will comply."

Remark.—A *dependent* clause requires another to complete its meaning. It is usually introduced by some conjunction, as *if*, *though*, etc., and often precedes the clause on which it depends.

When the dependent clause follows the independent, it is in many cases not set off by a comma; as, "You may go if you wish."

When the dependent clause follows the independent, and is introduced by "*that*," it is not set off by a comma, unless "*that*" is equivalent to "*in order that*," and is placed at some distance from the verb; as,—

"I believe that he spoke the truth."

"I listened to his remarks, that I might understand his position."

Exercise.

Copy the following and punctuate wherever necessary:

1. Every man respects him that does him a favor
2. By playing with a fool at home he'll play with you abroad
3. Instruct those in your care cheerfully you will gain the reward.
4. As we grow wiser we see our mistakes more clearly
5. Crafty men contemn studies simple men admire them and wise men use them.
6. There mountains rise and circling oceans flow.
7. Columbus who discovered America was a Genoese.
8. The young man that met me this morning has been unfortunate.
9. My brother who is more talented than I learns readily
10. The bluebird which seems to be the harbinger of spring has already come to us from the south.
11. The little boy loved the teacher who was fondly devoted to him.
12. If you would be revenged on your enemies let your life be blameless.
13. Make men intelligent and they become inventive.
14. The eye that sees all things sees not itself.
15. The new novel which I bought last week lies on the shelf.

RULE IV.—*Parenthetical Expressions.*—Parenthetical words, phrases, and clauses should be set off by commas.

Remark.—Expressions are parenthetical when they are placed between the related parts of a sentence, but are not strictly essential to its meaning.

The following are among the expressions most commonly used as parenthetical:

as it were,	in fact,	of course,
as it happens,	in reality,	perhaps,
consequently,	in short,	then,
finally,	in truth,	therefore,
however,	moreover,	too,
indeed,	namely,	to be sure,
in a word,	no doubt,	you know.

When any of these expressions are used as modifiers of some part of the sentence, they are no longer parenthetical, and are not pointed off by commas. Observe the different uses of *however* in the following sentences:

1. However hard he studies, he improves but slowly.
2. He seldom, however, becomes discouraged.

Note.—When the parenthetical expression is used at the beginning of a sentence, but one comma is used; as, “In truth, we fared but ill.”

RULE V.—*Transposed Elements.*—Transposed phrases and clauses are usually set off by commas.

Ex.—“Of all ill habits, that of idleness is the most incorrigible.”

Note.—When the connection is close, the comma is not used; as, “In the morning he will come.”

RULE VI.—*Series.*—In a series of words, all being the same part of speech, a comma should follow each particular.

Ex.—The mind is that which knows, feels, thinks.

Honor, affluence, and pleasure are his.

Note.—1. When the conjunction is omitted between the last two words of a series, a comma is placed also after the last, unless it precedes a single word; as, “Charity beareth, believeth, hopeth, all things.”

2. When the words in the series are connected by conjunctions, the commas may be omitted; as, “All beauty and wisdom and power are his.”

RULE VII.—*Words in Pairs.*—When words are used in pairs, a comma should be placed after each pair.

Ex.—Rich and poor, high and low, prince and peasant, all must submit to the same ruler, Death.

RULE VIII.—*Apposition.*—Words in apposition are set off by commas.

Ex.—Bryant, the American poet, is dead.

John Hopkins, D. D., LL.D.

Note.—When the terms in apposition are brief or closely connected, they should not be separated by commas; as, “The poet Wordsworth,” “Peter the Hermit.”

RULE IX.—*Words in the Vocative.*—Nouns or pronouns in the Nominative Case Independent by *address*, with their accompanying words, are separated from the remainder of the sentence by commas.

Ex.—I am ready, my friend, to hear your statement.

RULE X.—*Absolute Construction.*—Words placed in the Nominative Case Absolute are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Ex.—The door being open, we went in.

RULE XI.—*Omission of Verb.*—When in a compound sentence the verb is omitted in clauses following the first, a comma takes its place.

Ex.—Labor brings pleasure; idleness, pain.

RULE XII.—*Logical Subject.*—When the logical subject ends with a verb of the same form as the predicate verb, or consists of parts subdivided by commas, it is separated from the predicate by a comma.

Ex.—Whosoever sins, suffers.

A youth, a boy, a mere child, could answer the question.

RULE XIII.—*Quotations.*—A short quotation, or an expression resembling a quotation, is preceded by a comma.

Ex.—Patrick Henry began by saying, “It is natural to man to indulge in the illusions of hope.”

“His great fault was, that he lacked accuracy.”

RULE XIV.—*Numeral Figures.*—When any numbers, except dates, are expressed by figures consisting of more than four characters, they are separated by commas into groups of three, beginning at the right.

Ex.—The territory contains 1,456,743 square miles.

RULE XV.—*Ambiguity.*—A comma is sometimes needed to prevent ambiguity.

Remark.—Thus, in the sentence, “He asked for the position, without a recommendation,” the omission of the comma would make the sentence ambiguous, if not entirely ungrammatical. In writing sentences of this kind, it is well to avoid any construction which needs punctuation-marks to make the sense clear.

Exercise.

Insert commas and periods in the following sentences wherever necessary:

1. Life as we call it is nothing but the edge of the boundless ocean of existence when it comes upon soundings
2. In character in manners in style in all things the supreme excellence is simplicity.

3. If a good face is a letter of recommendation a good heart is a letter of credit.
4. Three-story men idealize imagine predict; their best illumination comes from above through the skylight
5. Beauty like truth and justice lives within us; like virtue and like moral law it is a companion of the soul.
6. Though deep yet clear; though gentle yet not dull
7. Sin or moral evil should excite the greatest abhorrence.
8. We are fearfully wonderfully made
9. Sound sound the tambourine! strike strike the mandoline!
10. Let us every day strive to become better wiser and more cultivated
11. Woe woe to the rider that tramples them down!
12. Washington the first President of the United States was born in Virginia
13. Diogenes the Cynic philosopher was a native of Greece
14. Punctuation is derived from the Latin *punctum* a point
15. Strong proofs not a loud voice produce conviction
16. Whatever you try to do do with your might
17. Every study however insignificant is of some value
18. The clouds seem to float as it were lazily on the summer breeze
19. Dear sir I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your letter
20. I am my dear sir with great respect your friend
21. Come companion of my toils let us take fresh courage
22. Our friend having finished his work began at once to prepare for the journey.
23. Physicians the cause of the disease being once discovered think the cure half wrought.
24. I proceed lastly to discuss this most important question.
25. Well I am pleased to think that we have at last accomplished the work successfully.
26. Education is of no use to us unless it make us stronger and better.
27. We remained awake a great part of the night that we might observe any change that took place.
28. Semiramis built Babylon; Dido Carthage; and Romulus Rome.

29. Speak as you mean do as you profess and perform what you promise
30. One murder makes a villain ; millions a hero.
31. He arose and said "I do not care to discuss this question at present."
32. While the bridegroom tarried they all slumbered and slept.
33. I inquired and rejected consulted and deliberated till the sixty-second year made me ashamed of wishing to marry.—*Johnson.*
34. Here is the sorrow the sighing
Here are the cloud and the night ;
Here is the sickness the dying
There are the life and the light
35. Lives of great men all remind us
We may make our lives sublime
And departing leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time
36. There is a reaper whose name is Death
And with his sickle keen
He reaps the bearded grain at a breath
And the flowers that grow between.

The Semicolon (;).

The semicolon is used to separate parts of sentences less closely connected than those separated by commas.

The following are the most important rules for the use of the semicolon :

RULE I.—*Parts of Sentences.*—A semicolon should be placed between the parts of a sentence when the subdivisions of these parts are separated by commas

Ex.—It is our first duty to receive the instruction ; our second, to apply it.

RULE II.—*A General Term.*—A general term having several particulars in apposition may be separated from the particulars by a semicolon.

Ex.—Nouns have three cases; Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

Note.—By many writers a dash, or a comma and a dash, are used instead of the semicolon; as, Nouns have three cases—Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

RULE III.—*Short Sentences.*—Short sentences which have but a slight dependence on one another as to sense are usually separated by semicolons.

Ex.—The wind and the rain are over; the clouds have passed away; the sunshine again floods over the earth.

RULE IV.—*Before As.*—A semicolon should precede *as* when it introduces an example.

For illustration, see the application in this book wherever examples are introduced.

Note.—A semicolon is sometimes used before *viz.*, *to wit*, *i. e.*, or *that is*, when it precedes an example or an enumeration of particulars.

RULE V.—*Additional Clauses.*—An additional clause which assigns a reason, draws an inference, or presents a contrast, may be cut off by a semicolon.

Ex.—Never pride yourself on your riches; for this is a sign of a weak mind.

RULE VI.—*Yes or No.*—*Yes or no*, when forming part of an answer and followed by a proposition, is cut off by a semicolon.

Ex.—No; he shall never be admitted.

RULE VII.—*Successive Clauses.*—A semicolon is used to separate several successive clauses in a complex sentence when they have a common dependence on a principal clause.

Ex.—When my heart shall have ceased to throb; when my life

shall have passed away; when my body shall have been consigned to the tomb; then shall all these things be remembered in my favor.

Exercise.

Punctuate the following where necessary:

1. Reasoning implies doubt and uncertainty and therefore God does not reason.

2. Our first object is to obtain knowledge our second to make a proper application of it.

3. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods
 There is a rapture on the lonely shore
 There is society where none intrudes
 By the deep sea and music in its roar

4. Give the definition of material of materiel of synchronism of ameliorate.

5. Honesty is the best policy but he who acts on that principle is not an honest man.

6. The true order of learning should be first what is necessary second what is useful and third what is ornamental.

7. The day is cold and dark and dreary
 It rains and the wind is never weary
 The vine still clings to the mouldering wall
 But at every gust the dead leaves fall
 And the day is dark and dreary.

8. Be what thou seemest live thy creed
 Hold up to earth the torch divine
 Be what thou prayest to be made
 Let the great Master's steps be thine.

9. Errors like straws upon the surface flow
 He who would seek for pearls must dive below.

10. A thing of beauty is a joy for ever
 Its loveliness increases it will never
 Pass into nothingness.

11. The firefly only shines when on the wing
 So is it with the mind when once we rest
 We darken

12. Be wise to-day 'tis madness to defer
 Next day the fatal precedent will plead
 Thus on till wisdom is pushed out of life
13. The miser grows rich by seeming poor an extravagant man
 grows poor by seeming rich.
14. Eloquence is action noble sublime godlike action.
15. Nouns have three persons First Second and Third.
16. The old men sit at their doors the gossip leans over her counter
 the children shout and frolic in the streets
17. If we think of glory in the field of wisdom in the cabinet of
 the purest patriotism of the highest integrity public and private,—
 the august form of Washington presents itself as the personation of
 all these ideas.

The Colon (:).

The colon is used to separate parts of sentences less closely connected than those separated by the semicolon.

The following are the most important rules for the use of the colon :

RULE I.—*Parts of Sentences.*—A colon should be placed between the parts of sentences whose subdivisions are separated by semicolons.

Ex.—Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested: that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously; and some few to be read wholly and with diligence.—*Bacon.*

RULE II.—*Additional Clauses.*—An additional clause not formally connected with the preceding clause is set off from the latter by a colon.

Ex.—This mountainous region is not wholly destitute, dreary, and unattractive: to the lover of Nature it presents beauty everywhere.

Note.—This rule differs from Rule V. under the semicolon, mainly in the omission of the conjunction which formally connects the clauses.

RULE III.—Quotations.—When a quotation is introduced, but not as the object of a verb, it should be preceded by a colon.

Ex.—His words were these: “I rise, Mr. President, to ask for information.”

The speaker addressed them as follows: “Ladies and gentlemen: It becomes my pleasant duty,” etc.

Note.—When a quotation follows such transitive verbs as *say*, *exclaim*, *reply*, *cry*, *shout*, and similar verbs, as the direct object, it should be preceded by a comma instead of a colon; as, Turning to his neighbor, he said, “My friend, can I help you to anything?”

RULE IV.—Formal Introduction.—A colon is placed after such expressions as *this*, *these*, *thus*, *as follows*, *the following*, and similar terms, when they promise or introduce something, whether a quotation or not.

Ex.—The rule should read as follows: A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

My opinion of the work is this: It is the most carefully-written book he has published.

RULE V.—Title-Pages.—In a title-page, when an explanatory expression is put in apposition with the main title without the use of a conjunction, the two are separated by a colon.

Ex.—*Aesthetics*: the Science of Beauty.

Note.—In a title-page a colon is usually placed between the name of the publishers of a book and the city in which they are located; as, Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

Exercise.

Punctuate the following where necessary:

1. The President arose, and addressed the assemblage as follows Friends and Fellow-citizens it becomes my pleasant duty to counsel with you.

2. Laziness grows on people it begins in cobwebs and ends in iron chains.
3. He who receives a good turn should never forget it he who does one should never remember it.
4. Our good and evil proceed from ourselves death appeared terrible to Cicero, indifferent to Socrates desirable to Cato.
5. "The Press! What is the Press?" I cried
When thus a wondrous voice replied
"In me all human knowledge dwells," etc.
6. Turning quickly upon us he said "I am not the person whom you should follow in this way."
7. But Douglass round him drew his cloak
Folded his arms and thus he spoke
"My manors halls and towers shall still
Be open at my sovereign's will," etc.
8. In the struggle for power, or scramble for pelf
Let this be your motto Rely on yourself!
For whether the prize be a ribbon or throne
The victor is he who can "go it alone."

The Interrogation Point (?).

The interrogation point is used to show that a question is asked.

RULE I.—*Questions.*—An interrogation point should be placed after every direct question.

Ex.—Will he come? Is this the work of the Christian teacher?

Remark.—1. When several questions are thrown together to form one sentence, an interrogation point is made to follow each question; as, "What is the meaning of meander? of education? of supercilious?" because the questions require separate answers.

2. When a question is not complete until the end is reached, only one interrogation point should be used, and that at the close of the sentence; as, "Which is the greater in extent—New York or Pennsylvania?"

RULE II.—*Doubt.*—The interrogation point is sometimes inserted in curves to throw doubt upon a statement.

Ex.—Jeffreys was one of the most impartial (?) of jurists.

Exercise.

Punctuate the following where necessary :

1. Do you covet learning's prize
 Climb her heights and take it.
2. What is all the beauty by which we are surrounded worth unless
it minister to our enjoyment
3. Is it worth while that we jostle a brother
 Bearing his load on the rough road of life
 Is it worth while that we jeer at each other
 In blackness of heart—that we war to the knife
 God pity us all in our pitiful strife
4. Greatness and goodness are not means, but ends
 Hath he not always treasures always friends
 The great good man

The Exclamation Point (!).

The exclamation point is used to indicate some emotion.

RULE I.—*Interjections.*—The exclamation point is placed after interjections when they denote strong emotion.

Ex.—Shame! how dare you do it? Alas! we must perish.

Remark.—When the emotion expressed belongs to the whole phrase or sentence, the exclamation is sometimes placed after the entire expression rather than after the interjection; as, “Shame upon such doings!”

RULE II.—*Exclamations.*—An exclamation point is placed after every exclamatory expression.

Ex.—“How beautiful! how beautiful!” they all exclaimed.

What a cold day this is!

Note.—It is usually best to place the point where the full force of the exclamation is brought out; as, “Onward, my soldiers, and at them!” rather than “Onward! my soldiers, and at them!”

Remark.—The exclamation point is sometimes used to express doubt in the same manner as the interrogation point; as, “Randolph was a cool and unimpassioned (!) speaker.”

Exercise.

Punctuate the following where necessary:

1. Build thee more stately mansions O my soul
As the swift seasons roll
2. Not in vain the distance beacons. Forward forward let us
range
Let the great world spin for ever down the ringing grooves of
change
3. Thou hast all seasons for thine own O Death
4. Loud rings the nation's cry
Union and Liberty one for evermore
5. Hail to thee blithe spirit
6. The sky is changed and such a change O night
And storm and darkness ye are wondrous strong
Yet lovely in your strength as is the light
Of a dark eye in woman

The Dash (—).

The following are the most important rules for the use of the *dash*:

RULE I.—*Sudden Change.*—A dash is used to mark some sudden or abrupt change in the construction or sense of a sentence.

Ex.—Horror burst the bands of sleep; but my feelings—words are too weak, too powerless, to explain them.

RULE II.—*Parenthesis.*—The dash is sometimes used to set off parenthetical expressions when the connection is not so close as to require commas.

Ex.—Religion—who can doubt it?—is the noblest of themes for the exercise of intellect.

RULE III.—*A Pause.*—The dash is sometimes used to indicate a pause made for rhetorical effect.

Ex.—It was admitted by all that the governor was a prudent ruler—when his secretary was the adviser.

Note.—The dash is also sometimes used to denote an expressive pause; as, “The wind roared—ceased—sighed gently—roared again—then died quietly away.”

RULE IV.—*Omission.*—The dash is used to indicate an omission.

Ex.—Matthew 6 : 1–5.....Matthew 6 : 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

1880–81.....1880, 1881.

G—e W—n.....George Washington.

RULE V.—*Summing up.*—The dash is sometimes used to denote a summing up of particulars.

Ex.—Wife, family, relatives, friends—all have deserted him.

RULE VI.—*With Other Pauses.*—The dash is often placed after other marks to add effect.

Remark.—The following are the chief instances:

1. After a side-head ; as, “Remark 6.—,” etc.
2. Between the end of an extract and the name of the author, if both are placed on the same line ; as, Striking manners are bad manners.—*Robert Hall.*
3. Between short quotations brought together in the same line ; as, “Are you prepared?”—“Yes.”—“What is the hour?”—“It is four o’clock.”

Exercise.

Punctuate the following where necessary :

1. Here lies the great False marble where Nothing but sordid dust lies here
2. Greece Carthage Rome where are they
3. They conquered but Bozzaris fell
Bleeding at every vein
4. It is like like whom
The things that mount the rostrum with a skip
And then skip down again

5. The pulse fluttered stopped went on throbbed stopped again moved stopped Shall I go on No

6. "I wish" said my uncle Toby, with a deep sigh "I wish Trim I were asleep"

7. Was there ever a braver man was there ever a but I must not boast of his courage too much.

The Curves ().

RULE.—The curves, or marks of parenthesis, are used to enclose such words as break the unity of the sentence, and have little, if any, connection with the remaining part of it.

Ex.—I love (and who does not love?) the country of my birth.

Remarks.—1. The sentence embracing curves is punctuated as it would be were there no parenthetical part included.

Whatever point may be needed is placed after the last curve, unless some other mark precede the last curve, in which case the point is placed before the first curve; as,—

(a.) "Whether writing prose or poetry (for a portion of the work is poetry), the author is equally interesting."

(b.) "While he remains, (and why should he not remain?) he will prove a warm advocate."

2. The part within the curves is punctuated according to the rules heretofore explained.

3. The dash is preferred to the curves by many writers of English at present, and is much more extensively used.

Exercise.

Punctuate the following where necessary :

1. This book is written or supposed to be written for we would speak timidly of the mysteries of superior beings by the celebrated Mrs. Hannah More

2. I have seen a man if man he could be called insult and abuse a weak defenseless boy

3. Consider and may the consideration sink deep into your hearts the fatal consequences of a wicked life

4. I hope the senator from Massachusetts Mr Sumner indorses the suggestion I make

5. A noun Latin *nomen* is a name

Quotation-Marks (" ") .

RULE I.—*A Quotation.*—Quotation-marks are used to enclose a direct quotation.

Ex.—Bacon says, “Knowledge is power.”

Remark.—When other words occur between the quoted parts, only the quoted words are enclosed by the marks; as, “There is but one object,” says St. Augustine, “greater than the soul; and that one is the Creator.”

Note.—When the quotation is not direct no marks are needed; as, Bacon said that knowledge is power.

RULE II.—*A Quotation within Another.*—When one quotation is included within another, the included quotation is enclosed by single quotation-marks.

Ex.—I find the following: “‘I rise for information,’ said a member. ‘I am very glad to hear it,’ said another near by; ‘for no one needs it more.’”

RULE III.—*Quoted Paragraphs.*—When a number of quoted paragraphs come in succession, the inverted commas precede each, but the closing quotation-marks follow the last paragraph only.

Remark.—When a quotation is made, the marks should enclose the punctuation-marks as well as the words.

Notice the difference in the following sentences:

1. What he said was, “Why do you not go?”
2. Did he say, “You can go,” or “You must go”?

The first sentence embraces a quoted question; the second is a question itself.

Note.—Authors sometimes put words or phrases, used in illustration, in quotation-marks; as, “Love” and “like” are synonyms.

Exercise.

Punctuate the following where necessary :

1. Socrates said I believe that the soul is immortal
2. When Fenelon's library was on fire God be praised said he that it is not the dwelling of a poor man.
3. A gentleman remarked I have heard a minister say I am thankful even in adversity for the good which God grants me and I admire the gratitude expressed in the sentiment.
4. Socrates said he believed that the soul is immortal.
5. Why do you not go at once said he
6. What did the teacher say Did he say You must not go
7. There is only one cure for the evils which newly-acquired freedom produces says Macaulay and that cure is freedom
8. Some one has said What a world of wisdom is contained in the words of Longfellow Life is real life is earnest and the grave is not its goal
9. I found in my book this sentence Some one has written what a world of wisdom is found in the words of the poet Life is real Life is earnest, etc.

Other Marks.

The following are the most important of the remaining marks used by printers :

Brackets [] are used to enclose some word or words necessary to explain or correct an error ; as, "The lawyer told the farmer that he [the farmer] was improving in health."

The **Apostrophe** (') is used to indicate the omission of a letter.

The **Ellipsis** [———] [* * *] is used where some letters have been omitted ; as, Gen. J ——— n for Gen. Jackson ; President J * * * * n for President Johnson.

The **Section** [§] denotes the small divisions of a book or a chapter.

The **Paragraph** [¶], which is now rarely used, denotes the beginning of a new subject.

The **Caret** [^] is used in writing to show that something has been omitted ; as, "This is our ^{new} house."

The **Index** [~~x~~] is used to point to something special.

The **Brace** [{ }] is used to connect two or more terms with one term ; as, Nouns { Common,
Proper.

The **Hyphen** [-] is used to connect words ; as, *farm-yard*. It is also used to divide syllables ; as, *an-i-ma-tion*.

The **Ditto mark**, or **Double Comma** [“ ”], is used to indicate that the words above it are to be repeated.

The **Asterisk** [* * *] calls attention to a particular passage.

The **Cedilla**, placed under *c* [ç], gives it the sound of *s*, as in *façade*.

The **Tilde**, placed over *n*, shows that *n* is equivalent to *ny*, as *cañon* (canyon).

The **Diæresis** [‘ ’], placed over the latter of two vowels, shows that they belong to different syllables, as in *coöperate*.

The **Macron** [-], placed over a vowel, shows that it has the long sound, as *cāne*.

The **Breve** [‘ ’], placed over a vowel, shows that it has the short sound, as *cān*.

The **Asterisk** [*], the **Dagger** [†], the **Double Dagger** [‡], and the **Parallel** [||] are generally used to refer to marginal notes. Sometimes letters of the alphabet and figures are used for the same purpose.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of the laws of verse-making or versification.

Versification is the art of arranging poetical lines or verses.

A **Verse**, or line of poetry, consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables arranged according to some law.

A **Couplet**, or **Distich**, consists of two lines or verses taken together.

A **Triplet** consists of three verses rhyming together.

A **Quatrain** consists of four verses rhyming alternately.

A **Stanza** is one of the separate divisions of a poem. It consists of two or more verses.

Note.—The word *verse*, which means a single line in poetry, is often improperly used for *stanza*.

Rhyme.

Rhyme is the similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more verses.

Poetry is written both with and without rhyme.

Blank Verse is verse without rhyme.

Note.—1. Rhymes should begin with different letters and end with the same sound or nearly the same sound. Thus, *cause* and *laws* is a good rhyme, but *cause* and *caws* is faulty.

2. Rhymes may consist of one, two, or three syllables; thus, *man*, *plan*; *village*, *pillage*; *terrify*, *verify*. The rhyme must, however, begin with the accented syllable.

Poetic Feet.

Feet are the divisions of a verse, each consisting of two or more syllables arranged according to accent.

The dividing of a verse into feet is called *Scanning*.

The macron [-], placed over a syllable, shows that the syllable is accented, and the breve [~] shows that the syllable is unaccented.

Note.—The accented syllable is usually called *long*, and the unaccented *short*.

The following are the principal feet: *Iambus*, *Trochee*, *Anapest*, *Dactyl*.

The **Iambus** consists of a short and a long syllable, as *Invīte*, *rētāin*, *rēpīne*.

The **Trochee** consists of a long and a short syllable, as *fāthēr*, *hōlŷ*, *listēn*.

The **Anapest** consists of two short syllables and a long one, as *cōmprēhēnd*, *əntərtain*, *ɪntərvēne*.

The **Dactyl** consists of one long syllable and two short ones, as *beāutīfūl*, *hēavēnlŷ*, *īnnōcēnce*.

Kinds of Verse.

A verse is usually named according to the kind of feet employed in it. Thus, we have *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapestic*, and *Dactylic*.

Meter, or **Measure**, is the arrangement of a certain number of poetic feet in a line.

When the meter is complete, the verse is said to be *Acatalectic*.

When the meter is deficient, it is called *Catalectic*.

When there is a redundant syllable, the verse is said to be *Hypercatalectic* or *Hypermeter*.

Verses are named also according to the number of feet they contain, thus:

Monometer, a verse of one foot.

Dimeter, a verse of two feet.

Trimeter, a verse of three feet.

Tetrameter, a verse of four feet.

Pentameter, a verse of five feet.

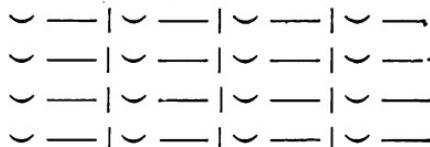
Hexameter, a verse of six feet.

Heptameter, a verse of seven feet.

The principal hymn meters are the following:

1. Long Meter Stanza.

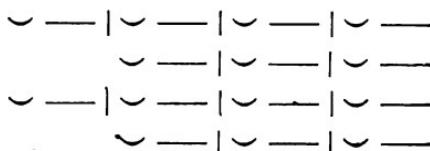
Four lines, Iambic Tetrameter.



2. Common Meter Stanza.

First line and third line, Iambic Tetrameter.

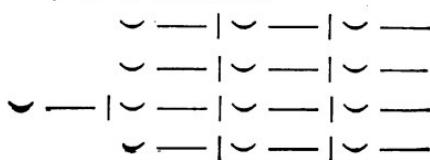
Second line and fourth line, Iambic Trimeter.



3. Short Meter Stanza.

First line, second line, fourth line, Iambic Trimeter.

Third line, Iambic Tetrameter.



Remarks.

1. In many cases the foot takes in parts of two words, thus:

Thě cūr | fěw tōlls | thě knēll | ñf pārt | Ing dāy,
Thě lōw | ñg hērd | wīnds slōw | ly õ'er | thě lēa.

2. When monosyllables are used in poetry, the accent is placed according to the kind of foot used, thus:

Wē hāil | thēe, Mōrn, | with rūd | dȳ bēam.

3. Iambic Pentameter is often called *heroic* verse, because it is the verse usually employed in relating the deeds of heroes.

Most of the poems of Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton, Pope, Cowper, Thomson, Young, and Wordsworth are written in *heroic* verse.

4. An Iambic Hexameter is also called an *Alexandrine*, a name derived from a French poem in which the exploits of Alexander were recited.

Poetic License.

The privilege of using certain words and forms in poetry which are not allowable in prose is called *Poetic License*.

The chief varieties of poetic license are the following:

1. **Ellipses**; as,

“Thy tragic muse gives smiles, thy comic sleep.”

2. **Substitution** of one part of speech for another, as an adjective for an adverb; thus,

“They fall *successive*, and *successive* rise.”

3. **Abbreviations** and **Contractions** not allowable in prose; as, *morn*, *eve*; *'tis*, *'twas*.

4. **Pleonasm**, or the use of superfluous words; as,

My friends, do they now and then send
A wish or a thought after me?

Scanning.

Scan the following selections, as in the model:

Model.

Whēn āl | th̄y mēr | ciēs, Ō | mȳ Gōd !
 Mȳ rīs | īng sōū | sūrvēys,
 Trānspōrt | ēd wīth | th̄e viēw, | I'm lōet
 īn wōn | dēr, lōve, | ānd prāise.

Some feelings are to mortals given,
 With less of earth in them than heaven :
 And if there be a human tear
 From passion's dross refined and clear,
 A tear so limpid and so meek
 It would not stain an angel's cheek,
 'Tis that which pious fathers shed
 Upon a dutious daughter's dead !—*Scott.*
 How fleet is a glance of the mind !
 Compared with the speed of its flight,
 The tempest itself lags behind,
 And the swift-wingēd arrows of light.—*Cowper.*

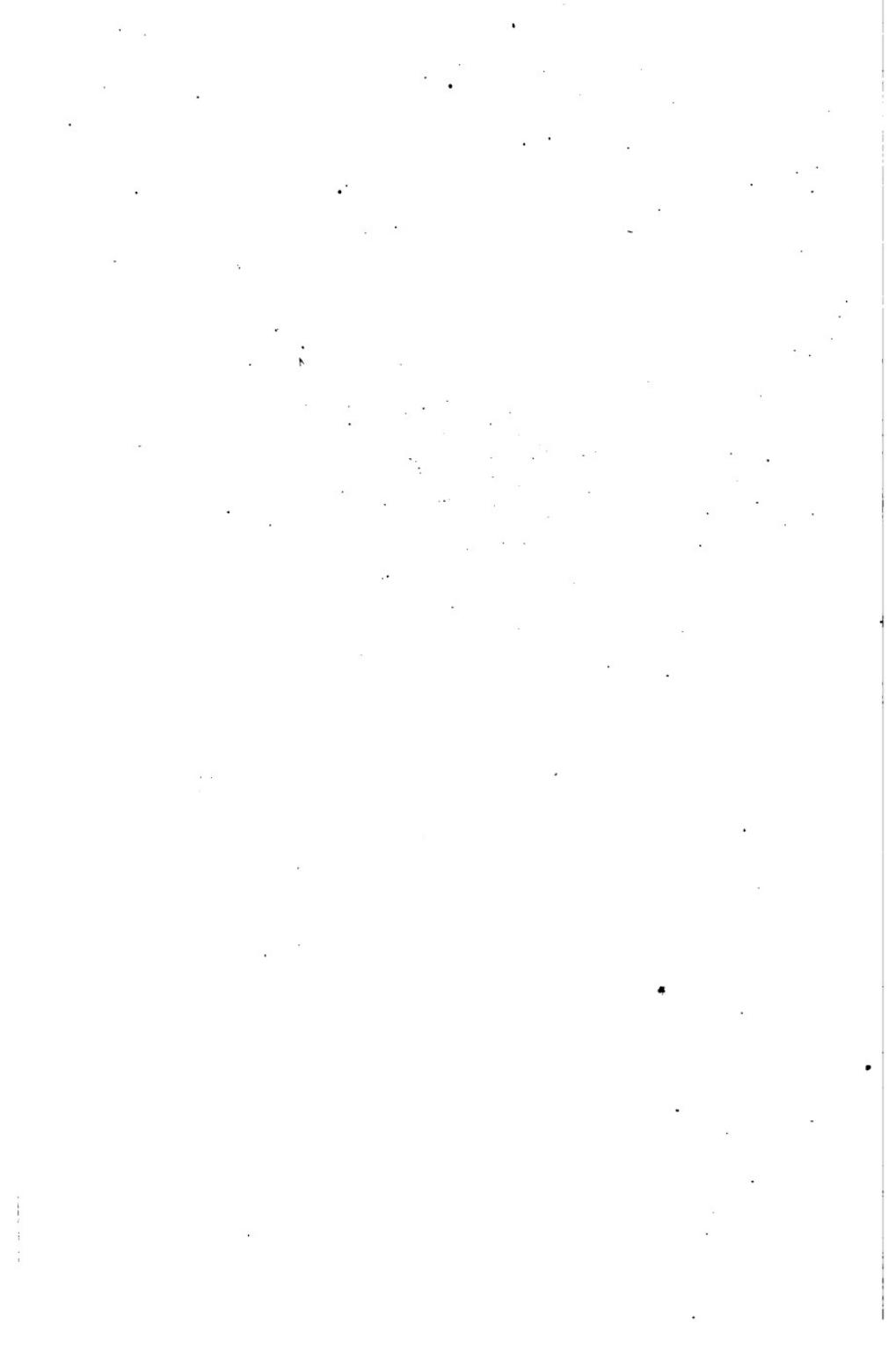
Nothing useless is, or low ;
 Each thing in its place is best ;
 And what seems but idle show
 Strengthens and supports the rest.—*Longfellow.*

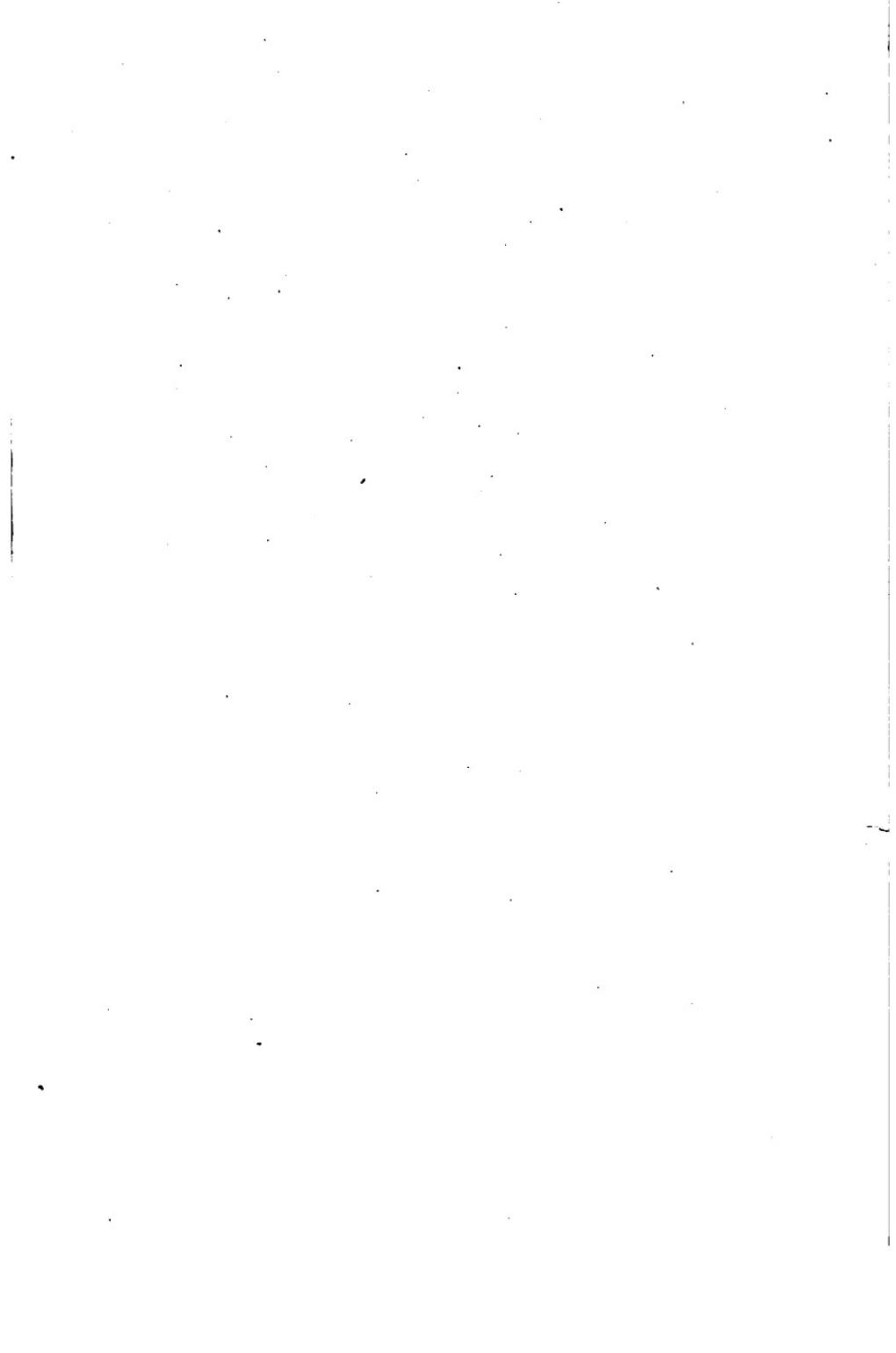
The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
 And all that beauty, all that wealth, e'er gave,
 Await alike th' inevitable hour :—
 The paths of glory lead but to the grave.—*Gray.*

Wearily flaggeth my soul in the desert,
 Wearily, wearily.
 Sand, ever sand, not a gleam from the fountain ;
 Sun, ever sun, not a shade from the mountain ;
 Wave after wave flows the sea of the desert,
 Drearily, drearily.—*Bulwer.*

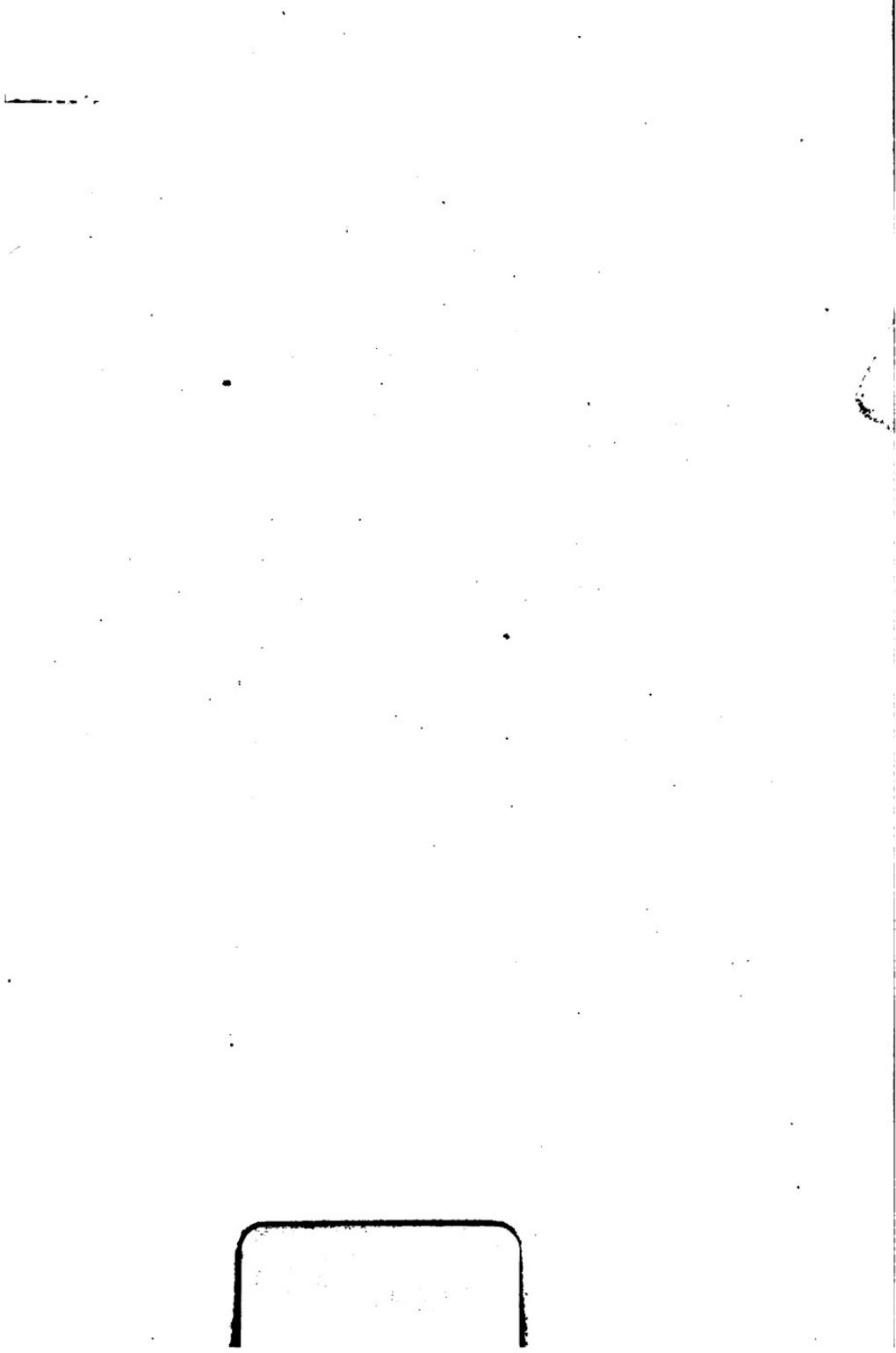
Our bugles sang truce ; for the night-cloud had lowered,
 And the sentinel stars set their watch in the sky ;
 And thousands had sunk on the ground overpowered,
 The weary to sleep, and the wounded to die.—*Campbell.*













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